The Nation

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Summary of the News

Dispatches from Washington on Tuesday indicated that the Austrian reply to the second American note on the Ancona may be received by the State Department at the end of this week. No official forecast of the contents of the reply has been given out in advance of the receipt of the note. Both in Vienna and in Berlin, where the temperate character of the last American note is recognized, opinion in regard to prospects of a settlement appears from the dispatches to be hopeful. Whether or not this is based upon an assumption that the way has been opened for a lengthy diplomatic discussion, as in the case of the Lusitania, remains to be seen. In Washington the opinion seems to persist that no such prolongation of the discussion will be tolerated.

The tenseness of the situation existing between the United States and the Central Empires is not mitigated by the pertinacity of the latter in continuing to attack passenger-carrying liners, according to information available as we write, without warning. News came on Thursday of last week of the sinking, on the preceding Tuesday, of the Japanese liner Yasaka Maru in the eastern Mediterranean, happily without loss of life. According to a report received by Secretary Lansing on Monday from the American Consul at Port Said, the ship was sunk without warning and no attempt to escape was made. One American was on board. The nationality of the submarine has not been established. A similar obscurity veils the identity of the submarine which, on December 24, torpedoed, again without warning, according to present information, the French steamship Ville de la Ciotat in the Mediterranean. Eighty of the passengers and crew are reported to have lost their lives. It is stated that no American was on board.

Dispatches from Washington last week professed to throw some light on two of the other questions outstanding between the United States and Germany. The settlement of the Lusitania case, it was stated, was originally delayed on account of the high state of public feeling in Germany. With the lapse of time and the German successes on land, feeling had calmed down and a settlement was near, when the German public was again irritated by the dismissal of Capts. von Papen and Boy-Ed. Consequently the matter is again postponed. Publication of Germany's latest note on the question of the Frye, the full text of which has been received by the State Department, has been withheld on account of its possible bearing on the open issues involved in the cases of the Lusitania and the Ancona.

News of Teutonic conspiracies in this country has been comparatively meagre during the past week, the outstanding event being the indictment by the Federal grand jury, on December 23, of Paul Koenig, the "special investigator" of the Hamburg-American Line, on two charges: the one of having organized a "military enterprise," the purpose of which was to destroy the Welland Canal; the other of having organized an enterprise to obtain military information in Canada for the German Government.

Col. Edward Mandell House sailed on Tuesday for Europe, where he will visit London, Paris, and Berlin as the personal representative of the President. Col. House's diplomatic tour is officially stated to have no connection with any mission of peace, and to be solely for the purpose of interpreting American sentiment to American diplomatic representatives.

The second convention of the Pan-American Scientific Congress opened in Washington on Monday. The delegates were welcomed by Secretary Lansing, and Pan-Americanism was the theme of all the speeches of the opening day.

On December 24 Secretary Daniels made public the report, hitherto not disclosed, submitted by the General Board of the navy on July 30 last. The report recommended that the navy should by 1925 be made equal to the most powerful maintained by any other country in the world.

Events in England appear to be hastening to a governmental crisis. The situation is not perfectly clear as we write, and it is possible that a decision may have been reached by the time these lines appear in print. The facts, however, are tolerably obvious. Undercurrents of dissatisfaction with the Coalition Government, as at present constituted, of which the most open manifestation has been found in the papers controlled by Lord Northcliffe, have recently been brought to the surface and swollen in volume by two causes. The first was the now famous "too late" speech made by Mr. Lloyd George in the House of Commons on December 20; the second was the failure of Mr. Asquith last week to fulfil expectations by announcing in the House of Commons the results of Lord Derby's recruiting scheme. The first aroused the public to a realization of deficiencies displayed in the conduct of the war; the second awoke well-grounded suspicion that the proportion of enlistments of unmarried men had proved disappointing. Other newspapers, therefore, have joined with the *Times* and *Daily Mail* in calling on Mr. Asquith to fulfil his pledge that, if the response of unmarried men to Lord Derby's scheme should prove insufficient, other measures would be taken to compel them to come in. The issue, therefore, is the direct one of conscription. That the Cabinet is divided on the question is evident, and Mr. Redmond last week stated squarely in the House of Commons that the measure would be opposed by the Nationalist party by every means in its power. As we write, three courses present themselves: the present Cabinet, still under Mr. Asquith, may adjust its differences, deciding definitely either for or against conscription; the Cabinet may be reorganized, with Mr. Lloyd George, for whom there seems to be a strong popular demand, as Premier; or the question may be put before the people in a general election.

Omitting disclosure of the results of Lord Derby's recruiting scheme, Mr. Asquith made a full statement on the military position of the Allies on December 21, in introducing a supplementary estimate providing for the raising of the numerical strength of the army from 3,000,000 to 4,000,000 men. The bill was passed in the House of Commons, without a division, on the following day, as was also the bill to prolong the life of the present Parliament another eight months.

Further changes were announced last week in the British high command. Lieut.-Gen. Sir William R. Robertson, Chief of the General Staff in France, has been recalled to become Chief of the Imperial General Staff at army headquarters in London; Sir Charles Monro is recalled from the Dardanelles to succeed to the command of the First Army in Flanders, and his place as British commander at the Dardanelles is taken by Sir Archibald Murray, who was formerly Chief of the Imperial General Staff.

Evidence of a split in the Socialist party in Germany came on December 21, when nineteen Socialists (later rumors by way of Zurich have stated that a number of Socialists also abstained from voting) voted against the new war credit of 10,000,000,000 marks which the Government had requested.

From the Balkans little news of importance has come. There have been rumors that the Teutonic forces were preparing to develop an attack against the positions of the Allies at Salonica, which, according to Gen. Castelnau, are now impregnable, but these reports have not been confirmed by later news. Unofficial dispatches from London on Monday announced positively that King Constantine had informed the Central Powers that an invasion of Greek territory by Bulgarian or Turkish troops would not be tolerated, but here again there is no confirmation. Following the example of his sovereign, M. Skouloudis, on December 20, gave an interview to an English journalist in which he defended the position taken by Greece. The interview is interesting, and M. Skouloudis makes a good plea for his country, and is just in some of his censure of Allied diplomacy. An important omission, however, is any explanation of the fact that M. Venizelos, as the duly elected representative of a majority of the Greek people, may be presumed to have expressed the people's will in the policy which he advocated, and which was thwarted by the action of King Constantine.

The "peace ship" of Mr. Henry Ford, of Detroit, has apparently encountered difficulties internal as well as external. There have been numerous reports of dissensions on board and certain of the pilgrims have retired from the enterprise. Mr. Ford himself, who is stated to be ill, is on his way home to America. The enterprise, however, has not been abandoned.

Dispatches from Peking, under date of December 24, told of the outbreak of a revolutionary movement, in opposition to the change to a monarchical government in China, under the leadership of Tsai Ao, formerly Military Governor of Yunan. Fifty thousand troops have been sent to the scene by the Chinese Government.

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The Week

There ran through the speeches at the opening of the Pan-American Scientific Congress on Monday a deep current of feeling. The human note was strongly sounded in Secretary Lansing's altogether admirable address of welcome. "The American family of nations might well take for its motto that of Dumas's famous musketeers: 'One for all and all for one.'" This is not the ordinary style of a Minister of Foreign Affairs. Neither do we find the usual reservations and cautions of statesmanship: "The ambitions of this republic do not lie in the path of conquest, but in the paths of peace and justice. Whenever and wherever we can we will stretch forth a hand to those who need help." It was a pledge of security not only against the outside world, but as against ourselves. "When we attempt to analyze Pan-Americanism we find that the essential qualities are: absence of covetousness of another's possessions, absence of jealousy of another's prominence, and, above all, absence of that spirit of intrigue which menaces the domestice peace of a neighbor." Mr. Lansing did not mention Mexico, but Mexico must have been in the minds of all who heard him.

And primarily it was the thought of Mexico that gave to the proceedings the striking touch of sincerity. Much was said of the war in Europe, and of how it has emphasized the need of a common defence for the American republics. The Chilian Ambassador, as president of the Congress, spoke of the Monroe Doctrine as having developed into a "solid tie of union, a guarantee, a bulwark for our democracies." But the impression of all that was said is not that a mere external force, a possible danger from across the Atlantic, has brought the American republics huddling together against the approaching storm. Pan-Americanism is not primarily the result of a welding process from the outside, but of a process of amalgamation from within. Fear of what may come after the war in Europe would not be sufficient to bring the republics together if the Latin Americans were afraid of the United States. The reason why Latin America is learning to believe in our disinterestedness is that we have given in the last five years the most complete demonstration possible. In Mexico we have shown that our policy is the American continent for all Americans, and not the Americas for the United States.

That the French steamer Ville de la Ciotat was torpedoed and sunk by a submarine in the Mediterranean, on the 24th, without warning, is officially stated by the French Ministry of Marine. A majority of the passengers and crew were picked up by an English steamer, but 79 or 80 lost their lives. This comes on top of the sinking of a Japanese steamer a few days before, the absence of warning in which case the American Consul at Port Said has confirmed by cable. How gravely these acts of lawlessness affect the situation between our country and Austria arising out of the Ancona massacre must be clear to any one who stops to think. The reply of the Austrian Government to our first note on the Ancona case laid most stress on the question of fact; but it would be a ghastly joke to pretend that the exact circumstances of the killing in the Ancona case have to be looked into with solemn accuracy at the very moment when the cables are informing us of the slaughter of non-combatants on merchant ships, without a moment's warning, as the regular practice of the Teutonic submarine commanders. While our demand in the Ancona case—as in that of the Lusitania and the Arabic—is expressly grounded on the killing of Americans engaged in the exercise of their lawful rights, the only way to protect those rights and to prevent such killing is by bringing about the cessation of submarine outlawry.

England, to win the war, must have, like any other belligerent, men, munitions, and money. Only in respect to the last-named commodity has no criticism been levelled as yet against Mr. Asquith. With regard to men and munitions, the campaign against the Asquith Cabinet is once more in full swing. The press of Lord Northcliffe takes it for granted that the Derby voluntary enlistment plan has failed, and that compulsory service is necessary. On the munitions question we have Lloyd George's increasingly fervent appeals to the workers. It is not necessary to assume that Lloyd George is coöperating with Lord Northcliffe. He may be merely trying to do his duty as Minister of Munitions in characteristically whole-hearted fashion. Yet his warnings and exhortations cannot but fall in with Northcliffe's attack upon the Cabinet. The time, of course, is propitious. The Government has confessed failure in the Dardanelles. The schedules in bankruptcy have been filed—200,000 men wasted in killed, wounded, and invalided. It is the worst piece of single news to which the British people has been treated since the beginning of the war. If Asquith is to be forced out at all, it is not likely that another such opportunity will occur.

The demand for a reconstruction of the Asquith Cabinet must be based on one of two assumptions. Either there is a lot of genius running loose in England which Mr. Asquith has failed to bring into the service of the nation, or else Mr. Asquith has failed to energize the material he has at hand. With regard to the first proposition, it should be noted that the present Cabinet is a Ministry of all the talents. The only Unionist leader of note not included is Sir Edward Carson, and he went out of the Cabinet as a protest against present methods. In backing Lloyd George, therefore, the movement has apparently decided that what the Cabinet needs is a reshuffling, with a man of action at the head. It may very well be that with Lloyd George as Premier things would happen. The fact remains, however, that Lloyd George in his own special department of munitions has, by his own accounts, not made a huge success of it. And the reason cannot be that he has been hampered by Mr. Asquith. The fact is, of course, that the British Cabinet, in the face of a task of unprecedented dimensions, has made blunders, precisely as every other belligerent government has blundered, not excluding Germany. These errors have been in part avoidable, but for the greater part inevitable. Lloyd George in Asquith's place might profit by his predecessor's experience, but no miracles of victory will be worked through mere manipulation of Cabinets and Premiers.

"I had much rather stretch out my hand to America in gratitude," writes Cardinal Mercier, "but I must hold out my open hand to beg." And it is right that he should beg, unafraid and unashamed, and for more and more and more. This is not only Belgium that is speaking; it is devastated Europe addressing to peaceful and prosperous America the only kind of Christmas message it can frame: Help us. We have given, but not enough. Not enough when measured by what we can afford to give; certainly not enough when measured by the immensity of the need. A war which has dwarfed all previous standards of woe and suffering must be made to dwarf all previous standards of charity. It is not our hearts that are at fault, but our imaginations. We must not let the fact that this is the greatest calamity of centuries be-

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come a commonplace. Again and again we must be reminded that this is a horror of which no one alive to-day has seen the like, of which no one alive to-day will ever see the like. The recruiting offices all over Europe are asking the young men to think what answer they will give when their children some day ask them what their fathers did in the time of great need. It is for us to think what answer we can make when our children some day shall ask us what we, of prosperous and peaceful America, did at a time when half the world was in agony.

In a statement issued at Boston a day or two ago, Dr. James L. Barton, chairman of the national committee for Armenian and Servian relief, made public the text of a protest, addressed by the German Ambassador at Constantinople to the Turkish Government on the subject of the Armenian atrocities. In this protest, which was filed on August 9, the German Government, after referring to the facts that had come to its knowledge, declares that it finds itself "obliged to remonstrate once more against these acts of horror." It is gratifying to note this action by the Kaiser's representative, which, whether any effective interference was practicable or not, has at least the merit of asserting the position that any civilized nation must necessarily take in face of such a situation. Evidently, Reventlow's doctrine that it would be wrong for a German to interfere, even by criticism, with the freedom of the Turk to conduct himself as he pleases in these little affairs is not shared by the highest authorities at Berlin.

There may be a little sarcasm in the comments of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* on President Wilson's plans for national defence. This organ of Liberal opinion in Germany thinks that they will, or ought to, put an end in the United States to outcries against Prussian *Militarismus*. "No people has inveighed against the German system more loudly than the Americans." Well, what will they say about "Wilson's conversion to militarism"? But the *Frankfurter*, in its treatment of the whole question, goes beyond international retorts. It takes a very sober view of the consequences of the adoption by the United States of a policy of great armaments. It will unhappily reinforce the doctrine, already regarded in Germany as of prophetic force, that the power of the whole earth is to be concentrated in the hands of two or three nations, with all the others shut out. On the contrary, boldly declares the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, "we hope and believe that the result of the war will be a very significant distribution of power in the world, so that mankind will be freed from the terrible pressure of *Weltmächte*." A Democratic Administration at Washington would naturally wish to share in such aspirations, not to do anything to dash them.

Statistics of the amount of destruction of British merchant ships that has been wrought by German submarines and mines are periodically put forward by the Overseas News Agency. The latest of these places the amount from the beginning of the war to the end of last month, "as stated on competent German authority," at 1,231,944 tons, "which means a loss of 5.9 per cent. of the total British tonnage." Presumably, in drawing attention to these figures, the expectation is that an impression will be produced of the enormous effectiveness of this harrying of British commerce. The actual conclusion that must be produced in the mind of any one who stops to think is precisely the opposite. Undoubtedly, a loss of 6 per cent. of the entire volume of British shipping, even if spread over a period of sixteen months, is no light matter; but how utterly incapable it is of producing any appreciable effect upon the fortunes of the war is sufficiently evident when the result is translated into terms of insurance. Evidently, an extremely small rate of insurance —so small as to have no serious bearing even on the question of prices—would be sufficient to cover the risk imposed in any one ordinary voyage by an instrumentality which effects a destruction of less than half of one per cent. of the nation's tonnage in a month. And this remains true even after allowance is made—as it should be—for the fact that the risks run by that part of the shipping which is specially exposed to the danger of submarine attack are far greater than the average for the entire volume.

Premier Borden's statement that Canada is willing to double her present contingent needs only translation into figures to show what a great burden she is ready to bear. She has already more than 175,000 men under arms, and of these nearly 100,000 are on the Continent or in England—equipped and maintained by the Dominion. Mr. N. W. Rowell, the Liberal leader in Ontario, has insisted that in comparison with the mother country Canada should have 600,000 men under arms, and at least 300,000 constantly on the fighting line. As the situation in Europe has darkened, Canadian determination, as reflected in the press, has kept steady pace with England's. So far as population goes, the Dominion's 8,000,000 people would seem able to raise 400,000 men without extraordinary effort. But it must be remembered that millions of Canada's population are not strictly British, and that she cannot recruit so easily as homogeneous Australasia. The financial burden, moreover, will be very great if Canada undertakes to maintain 400,000 men on the Continent.

Mr. Roosevelt hates and despises Mr. Wilson more than he does any other man in public life. But this does not mean that, if he tried, the Colonel could not hate and despise somebody worse than he does Mr. Wilson. To say otherwise would be to reflect on the Colonel's versatility and power of emotional concentration. This is the latest explanation of the famous Gary dinner, and a luncheon that took place about the same time. At these functions Mr. Roosevelt let it be known that if the Republicans try to nominate a candidate who is weak on Americanism, meaning preparedness, Mr. Roosevelt will throw his support to Wilson. This is consistent and adequate preparedness. It is preparedness against any possible adversary, Wilson, or whoever is the greater traitor nominated by either party on the un-American platform of disagreeing with Mr. Roosevelt. Believing heart and soul in preparedness, the Colonel has prepared a hymn of hate which may be discharged in any direction, like the guns of the Queen Elizabeth:

Hate of the mind and hate of the spleen,
Hate of the stout and hate of the lean,
Whom will I hate in June, '16?

Wilson!
Burton!
Root!
McCall!
} As the case may be.

For the third or fourth time in the last few years, Gen. Leonard Wood has struck an excellent blow for discipline and morality in the army by severely censuring a court-martial which failed to do justice. In previous cases he has dealt with courts that permitted drunken officers to escape without adequate punishment. Now his rebuke goes to the court which tried Col. Robert L. Hirst; the latter subjected a soldier of his command, who had struck him, to a cruel punishment, chaining him to a post. This savors entirely too much of Prussian militarism to be tolerated in the United States Army. As it is, there is much too great

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severity shown by the dealings of courts-martial with enlisted men as contrasted with the treatment accorded officers. Furthermore, Gen. Wood, Secretary Garrison, and Judge-Advocate-General Crowder are incessantly endeavoring to tone up the standards of the military courts, in which undertaking Gen. Wood's powerful and just rebuke will be extremely helpful. As the case of Col. Hirst now stands, the soldier who struck the Colonel in a saloon has been sentenced to five years' imprisonment at hard labor, while the Colonel, whose appearance in full uniform in a saloon in which enlisted men were drinking has not been explained, and whose guilt as to the punishment inflicted Gen. Wood considers established, has gone scot free.

An excellent step has been taken by the Federal Reserve Board in the adoption of a resolution declaring it to be the opinion of the Board that persons holding political or public office, or acting as members of party committees, "cannot consistently with the spirit and underlying principles of the Federal Reserve act serve as directors or officers of Federal Reserve banks." Copies of the resolution are to be sent to all the member banks, and they are urged to conform to it in the election of directors or officers of Federal Reserve banks. The effect of this action should be not only conclusive as to the class explicitly covered by the resolution, but highly effective in keeping out the danger of appointments for politics in any shape. With this clear declaration of principle on record, any person who objects to a political appointment will have a powerful force to back him in his protest. There are plenty of ways for politicians to get in their "pull" without naming any office-holder or party committeeman; but in spirit the resolution adopted by the Board covers the whole tribe.

Mr. John Hays Hammond told his Detroit audience on Monday that nothing but "egregious blunders" could prevent the Republicans from winning the Presidency next year. On the subject of Republican blunders, Mr. Hammond speaks as one with authority. He has figured in some of the most egregious of them. And it is a distinctly left-handed compliment which he pays to the sagacity of his party leaders when he predicts that they will not blunder in 1916 because there will be "small occasion" for them to do so. The inference is that if they possibly could make a mistake they would. As for the Democrats, whatever they do is a blunder. They propose special taxes to meet the cost of national defence. That is a blunder. They should have issued bonds. But that would have been only a smaller blunder. Direct taxes the people do not favor. Bond issues they merely look upon "unfavorably." It is hard to please Mr. Hammond.

If anybody is under the impression that the spoils idea has become negligible in this country, he might find instruction in what the Boston correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* has to say about Governor-elect McCall's Christmas. His mind was of necessity occupied with thoughts of the "horde of office-seekers who give him no peace." The correspondent goes on to recall the days when Cleveland came into the Presidency, and the Democrats, after a quarter of a century of exile, appointed a "smelling committee" to report what offices there were that the long-waiting faithful might hope to seize upon. "But these hungry Republicans," we are told, "observe no such formality. They seem to have no mercy on their Governor-elect. They besiege him 'terribly,' for that is the word used to describe the assault which is made upon him." Mr. McCall is described as already suffering from the strain that all this is putting on him, at a time when he would like to give all his thoughts to preparation for the duties he is about to assume. If Massachusetts Republicans, after having won a long-sought victory by putting up a man of McCall's high quality, proceed to treat the State to such an exhibition as this, is anything further needed to show what we are saved from by the civil-service laws?

Western backers of conservation measures in Congress are spurred to industry by the belief that unless these can be made ready before the programme of legislation for national defence, they will stand little chance of passage. Chairman Ferris received special permission to hold his House Committee on Public Lands in session through parts of the Christmas recess. This Committee has now voted to report the water-power bill in virtually the same form in which it passed the House last spring; and it is also taking up the leasing bill for coal, oil, gas, and so on, and the stock-raising homestead act. The Senate Committee is expected to amend the water-power bill radically, but it has already reported the homestead bill in its original form. The West is much interested in these measures. They are urgently required, as Secretary Lane has stated, for national development. To delay their passage another year—they were first presented in 1913, with the Alaskan railway and coal-leasing laws, and the new reclamation act—would be highly unfortunate.

Following the recent affiliation of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome with the American Academy, has come the appointment of its first permanent director, Professor Clark, of Yale. Both events mean a broadening of the activities of an institution which for twenty years has furthered the study of archæology, literature, and ancient art. It has not accomplished so much as the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, which was founded fourteen years earlier, and which by its excavations at Eretria, Argos, and Corinth has probably done more than any non-Greek archæological body except the French Institute. But the School at Rome provides a place where American students have been able to pursue the study of classical antiquities in their full bearing upon ancient life, and in some instances to make discoveries of value. Under a trained administrator, and in connection with the Academy, it should reflect greater credit than ever upon its parent body, the Archæological Institute of America.

A new kind of world's fair is called for by Ralph Adams Cram for the Pilgrim Tercentenary in Boston in 1920. The old type, "with its splendor and magnificence and exaltation of material achievement, is out of the question," he holds. There should be operatic performances of the best from all countries, and concerts and recitals which would include all kinds of music. The drama of all nations should be presented in all its forms. But he lays emphasis upon the idea that the celebration should be, "not only an historical and scenic event, but an opportunity for reconsecration of old ideals and adjustment to the new ideals which will result from the present war." How can these things be made concrete and graphic? Mr. Cram suggests conferences of all the learned and patriotic societies of Europe and America. He would also like to see "a great Roman Catholic church, an Episcopal church, and a great Protestant church within the grounds, which would be real churches with services and music." There should also be a place for Olympic games. Then it should be possible, not merely to behold, but to buy, any of the beautiful things made anywhere in the world, while cafés and restaurants modelled after those of the various nations would supply food and drink of all countries.

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"SECRET" DIPLOMACY.

Speaking for the Foreign Office, in the House of Commons last Thursday, Lord Robert Cecil refused to discuss England's diplomatic relations with any of the Balkan countries. The reason he gave was that "secrecy was the essence of success" in a Government policy respecting such matters. A cynic might remark that British diplomatic success in the Balkans has, indeed, been a great secret. If it exists, nobody knows it. But the cynic would be wrong if he thought that the whole story, when it comes to be told, will be nothing but one long record of imbecility on the part of the Foreign Office. Any half-dozen men in the street, or in a newspaper office, may think that they could have handled the Balkan diplomatic business better than the Foreign Secretaries of England, France, Russia, and Italy, but it is lucky for all concerned that they never had a chance to try. Lord Robert's insistence upon secrecy, however, raises large questions which were debated in England before the war and of which we shall certainly hear a great deal more after it is over.

They are sharply discussed in a book just published by B. W. Huebsch, "How Diplomats Make War." The author's name is not given, but he is identified as a "British statesman," a member of Parliament, evidently of the Radical group. He writes with a bitter pen, but has a large historical sweep and much knowledge, so that what he says is worth attending to even if one cannot follow him in the whole of his argument or agree with him in all of his conclusions. His main thesis may be set down in a few words. English diplomacy has for generations been in the hands of a narrow-minded and privileged class. The Foreign Office has been virtually self-perpetuating. Its officials have not been in touch with the people, and have for years gone on spinning their diplomatic webs in secret. Secrecy has been the great vice. The country suddenly wakes up to discover itself bound by treaties of which it had no preliminary knowledge, and by alliances and *ententes* and "conversations" of which nothing was known until they were declared to be "binding" on Great Britain. It was in such an unhappy condition of the management of her foreign policy that July, 1914, found England; and it is the contention of the writer of this book that, if English diplomacy had not been secret, if the whole matter could have been laid directly before the people, Great Britain would not have been drawn into the war.

This is highly dubious, in our opinion; and we do not think that the author's reasoning, or use of the official documents, is nearly so convincing as he imagines. But it is useless to go into such contentious matter at present. As to one of the chief positions of the volume, no American will have any quarrel with the writer of this book. It is that no treaties, forms of international alliance, or agreements with other nations ought to be entered into until they have been submitted to the representatives of the people in Parliament. To this extent, the proposal of "Democratic Control" of diplomacy is only what is the settled practice of the United States. In England the subject was brought up long before the present war accentuated the feeling that there was danger in secret treaties. In 1886 a resolution was moved in the House of Commons to this effect:

> That in the opinion of this House it is not just or expedient to embark in war, contract engagements involving grave responsibilities for the nation, and add territories to the Empire, without the knowledge and consent of Parliament.

It was defeated by a majority of only four votes. Mr. Gladstone was opposed to it, though he never held the sacrosanct theory of the Foreign Office. And, as a matter of fact, the English practice has more and more tended to imitate the American in the matter of getting the assent of Parliament to international agreements.

At the same time, in England as in the United States, it is impossible to take away from those in charge of the conduct of foreign affairs the responsibility for initiative. And for this a certain amount of secrecy is necessary. Certain kinds of information have to be held confidential. Otherwise, the information could not be got at all. And the first steps towards unravelling an international difficulty must in the nature of the case be undertaken by a few men. Diplomacy by mass meeting is impossible. But the results, the binding obligations, the shaping of the national policy—those are quite other matters. On them the voice of the nation must be heard. The diplomatic officials should always be compelled to do their work with the haunting consciousness that they will have to submit it all, in the end, to the considerate judgment of their fellow-countrymen. A point is reached where diplomacy ceases to be secret and makes a clean breast of everything. Democracy does not destroy the individual responsibility of statesmen. It rather heightens it. Leaders of a republic must be free to brood over their plans for the public welfare, and to mature them in the secrecy of their own minds; but they must strive so to direct their labors that when the full record leaps to light neither they nor their country shall have reason for shame.

WAR BURDENS AND "THE CLASSES."

Nothing that appeared in the cable dispatches last week was more notable than the manifesto to the people issued by a score of leading English bankers and financiers. In this was set forth unsparingly the character of the "stupendous task" of finance which confronts Britain, and which "will try the mettle of the nation as it has not been tried in a hundred years." What the nation must do to fulfil this task was stated in language as effective as it was simple and direct. It demands "the strenuous coöperation of every man, woman, youth, and maiden"; the production "of all non-essentials" must be stopped; the nation must "avoid the consumption of all non-essentials, and even restrict the consumption of essentials to the limit of efficiency"; for "only by all classes adding to and carefully husbanding their income, by selling foreign securities, by creating foreign credits, will it be possible to provide the vast sum needed by the nation and its allies."

To suppose that this exhortation will be literally, or even approximately, followed, would be to imagine a vain thing. But it will have considerable effect; and it gives expression to a state of mind which is widely current in England, which has already found concrete embodiment in legislation, and which is sure to find more as time goes on. Nothing has been more remarkable in the story of the war than the way in which the heavy increase of taxation in the successive British war budgets has been received, in Parliament and out. Of that grumbling over high taxes, and resistance to their imposition, which one is accustomed to regard as inevitable under all circumstances, there has been apparently a total absence. But even this does not do justice to the facts. Turning to the files of the three most important London weeklies, what do we find them saying, in the issue of September 25, immediately after Mr. McKenna's announcement of the budget for the coming year? Do they complain that the burden of taxation is needlessly high? Do they ask that more of the load be shoved off to

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some indefinite future? Quite the contrary. "Perhaps the best verdict on the Budget as a whole," says the *Spectator*, "is that its main excellence consists in the indication of more to come." "The criticism of the Budget that will hold as Mr. McKenna's faithful prophecies of the future come true," says the *Nation*, "will be that it does not go far enough." And the *Economist* declares that the Budget, while deserving of praise for going as far as it does, "is not only belated, but inadequate." Thus all these weighty organs of opinion agree that the taxation determined on, though imposing, as Mr. McKenna himself declared, "an unprecedented burden on the country," ought to have been made not lighter, but heavier.

This is all the more remarkable because —as is plainly acknowledged on all hands— it is quite out of the question to make the taxation heavy enough to yield an amount even distantly approaching the sum needed for the prosecution of the war. The Government's expenditures during the calendar year now closing will have amounted to six and a half billions of dollars; in the coming year they are expected to be nine billions. The effect of the new taxes will be, roughly, to make the current revenue two billions instead of one and a half; and if the utmost were done that any one could dream of undertaking, the deficiency could not be reduced by more than another half billion. It is not on account of any fantastic hope of doing the impossible that British statesmen and journalists are in favor of taxes of unparalleled magnitude. What they are after is two things, both essential to financial soundness in such a crisis as this. First, they wish to place the system of taxation on a basis plainly adequate, by its mere continuance, for the service of the colossal public debt after the close of the war; and secondly, they wish to compel, so far as the tax system can, that economizing on the part of individuals the voluntary practice of which is so solemnly urged by the English bankers.

The attitude shown by the wealthy classes in cheerfully accepting, and even urging, the adoption of measures placing upon them these extraordinary burdens of taxation should furnish matter for a little wholesome reflection to those who are in the habit of thinking of the poor and the rich, "the masses and the classes," very much as of sheep and goats, or perhaps rather of sheep and wolves. Before the great war, it was a mere commonplace of the literature of social agitation that war is an affair which "the classes" contemplate with cold-blooded nonchalance because they get all the benefit while "the masses" make all the sacrifice. In every one of the warring countries, this notion has been abundantly disposed of by the awful toll of death that has been paid by prince as well as peasant, by those accustomed to every privilege and luxury as well as by the humblest of workingmen. In England, with its voluntary system, it is in the highest strata of society that the sacrifice in the shape of sufferings, wounds, and death has been heaviest and most general. But the test of taxes is, in a way, even more searching; for, if it is infinitely less grave, it is also unaccompanied by those inspiring sentiments and that tradition of *noblesse oblige* which make the offering of life and limb a matter of course. It would be absurd to assert that the way in which the double test has been borne is a proof of the soundness or justice of the existing economic order; but it is truly a complete refutation of that travesty of the existing order which so many glib-tongued world-reformers are in the habit of passing off as a faithful picture of it.

NATIONAL POLICY AND THE EXPERT.

When Secretary Daniels created the Naval Advisory Board, he thought, and the nation thought, that he was mobilizing the inventive genius of America in the service of the country. But there are members of the Advisory Board who are under the impression that the thing they were asked to do was to assume charge of the foreign policy of the nation, and as much of its domestic affairs as was necessary. One member of the Advisory Board has resigned as a protest against Mr. Daniels's "suppression" of the recommendations of the General Board of the Navy. These recommendations called for a navy which by the year 1925 should be equal to Great Britain's. So thought the experts. But what has the man who happens to be a mere Secretary of the Navy done? This:

> You have arbitrarily limited the Board to a given sum for new construction, and thus have forced it to substitute for this a programme which in reality is not its own, but that of yourself, *a civilian, who as such is wholly incompetent to judge how large or what our naval forces should be.*

In other words, Mr. Daniels, a mere civilian, acting as the agent of President Wilson, another civilian, has presumed to exercise his judgment as to the kind of navy the country needs and will approve of, and is even planning to foist his ideas upon the country through the agency of the United States Senate and House of Representatives, composed exclusively of civilians.

It is well that one inventor should have thus clarified the issue by challenging the principle of civilian control of army and navy which obtains even in Germany and Russia, where war credits are voted by representatives of the people. The issue thus raised brings up the question of the rôle of the expert in relation to governmental problems as a whole, and particularly in relation to the problem of preparedness. As time goes on, we shall hear more and more of the expert; and rightly so. It is a sign of better things to come that the American people, whenever it is perplexed or whenever there is a difficult job to be put through, should be acquiring the habit of going to the specialist. The danger is that in our whole-hearted way of going at things we shall swallow the specialist whole. In our desire to escape from ignorance and muddle we are succumbing to the magic of the expert. It is a pity that so soon in our hunt for facts and efficiency a warning should become necessary against the efficiency expert. But that is the case. It is necessary, not only because there are experts and "experts," but because even the best of experts is bound to work within the limits set down for him by his employer. In the matter of army and navy, that employer is the nation.

What is the prime function of the Naval Board, made up of Thomas A. Edison and twenty-two distinguished colleagues? To give the country as efficient a navy as possible after Congress has decided how large a navy it needs and can afford. The functions of the General Board of the Navy are very much the same. It does not determine the strength of the navy. Given the size as a basis, it is for the General Board to decide as to the proper relation of Dreadnoughts, battle-cruisers, destroyers, and submarines. To the experts we go for the facts. It is right for the General Board to say that it thinks our navy weaker than that of Germany or France or Japan. It is not for the General Board to say that we ought to have a navy stronger than this or that foreign navy. It is within Admiral Dewey's province to point out that our coast fortifications will be insufficient if our fleet is destroyed. It is not within his province to say that consequently we must have a navy equal to the British navy. It is for the nation and its civilian rulers to decide

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whether it is necessary to anticipate the destruction of our fleet by the British fleet. It is right for the railway expert to point out that our present army of 100,000 men is, because of inadequate facilities for railway mobilization, equal only to 50,000 men or 25,000 men. It is not for him to say that we must therefore provide against an invasion by the German army or the British army. The possibility of a German or a British or a Japanese invasion ever coming off is one for the nation of civilians to decide.

The expert is only a hired employee. The nation is the employer, and must decide upon the final course of action. In framing a decision the nation will first of all determine the primary purpose it has in view. In the second place, it will balance expert against expert, even when it is a question of determining facts. For the outstanding truth is that even on facts the experts do not agree. The disgruntled specialist of the Advisory Board fears the "landing of the armies of such nations, for which their superior navies could easily clear the way." But we have expert testimony to the effect that there are no such "superior navies"; there is only one superior navy, England's. Admiral Fletcher, in command of our Atlantic fleet; Admiral Badger, his predecessor, and Admiral Winterhalter, in command of our Asiatic fleet, have said that our navy is superior to the German navy. This opinion deserves consideration. Even if the principle of civilian control did not exist as the fundamental principle of civilized government, it would be necessary to create the principle, if only to serve as umpire when experts disagree.

The conscience and the common-sense of the country cannot abnegate their functions before the expert. At his worst he is the magazine and newspaper expert who has seen how horrible war can be in Europe, and therefore feels qualified to speak of Dreadnoughts and battalions. Much better is the man who really knows about Dreadnoughts and battalions, but he, too, is not qualified to speak on diplomacy and international relations. The Chicago expert who decided that a defective baby must not be allowed to live was the kind of expert we do not need. His proper functions ceased when he gave his opinion that the defective baby would grow up to be a defective adult. On the broad issue of life and death he was only an individual. For that matter, it is on record that many of the Chicago doctor's professional colleagues disagreed with him, and that the final decision was left to the "civilian" parents of the defective baby.

CONFUSION IN CONGRESS.

Despite the holiday recess, enough Congressmen are staying on in Washington to give the correspondents hints concerning the legislative outlook. Some committees are informally at work. Bills are being drawn. Sentiment is sounded out and political combinations arranged. And the upshot, as pictured in the dispatches, is not very exhilarating. There are divided counsels. Leaders in either party do not agree on the general policy to be pursued. The only thing admitted on all hands is that Congress is going to spend a great deal of money, and will do it by confused methods, with an immense amount of pulling and hauling and log-rolling, and inevitably with huge waste.

In all this there is probably more than a little exaggeration. The correspondents must, in a dull fortnight, find something to write about, and they have taken the theme of Congressional muddle and grab. But in the midst of much assertion, which may be rather loose, we have one definite fact, which by itself is sufficiently ominous. On Saturday announcement was made that the attempt to establish something like a budget system had been abandoned. This subject, it will be remembered, had been referred by the Democratic caucus to a special committee. Composed of seven men, including the Speaker and Representatives Kitchin, Sherley, and Fitzgerald, it has discussed various plans to give the Government, working through the organization of the House, better control over appropriations. But its conclusion is to recommend no change at present. And what is the reason for doing nothing? Why, Congress has "too much important work before it"!

On its face, this seems very like a staring absurdity. Congress has so many more millions than usual to appropriate that it cannot stop to consider plans for doing it in the wisest way. It is conceded that the system under which a billion dollars is voted has been painfully haphazard and unsatisfactory. But the fact that a billion and a quarter will be voted this session is gravely advanced as an argument why there can be no carefully studied budget. The reasoning seems to be that the bigger sum will involve so much waste and extravagance anyhow that there is no use in trying to save a few millions here and a few there. They would never be noticed in the demnition total.

Doubtless, the special committee did not intend to make so abject a confession of helplessness. Yet its members ought to have seen how the thing would strike the country. An enormous burden of business is to be thrown upon Congress. It involves endless detail, conflicting projects by the hundred, insidious raids upon the Treasury by the thousand. Facing such conditions, business men would say that the first essential was to work out a scheme for tackling the great mass, and bringing order out of chaos. But before such a job it would appear that Congress throws up its hands in despair, and is content to go on dealing with a mighty maze without a plan. Thus the strongest arguments against confusion are turned into new reasons for remaining confused, and even heightening the confusion. The task of analyzing and controlling the national expenditure has suddenly become so much greater and more imperative than it ever was before that we have to give it up and let hugger-mugger continue to reign. Such a lame conclusion is only what we should expect from a Mantalini. We have a right to expect something better from men like Kitchin and Fitzgerald.

As we have intimated, however, it is not probable that they really mean to give up the whole fight for economy. To set up a budget system complete may have seemed to them too formidable a labor to be undertaken at once, yet they may be intending to act upon some of its leading principles. One of those principles, for example, is the need of Government, or Executive, approval of any given appropriation as a whole. We have not the machinery for getting this directly. No Finance Minister can go to the House of Representatives and say openly: "This is the bill the President favors; this other bill he opposes." But we have our alternatives, our equivalents for the methods used in countries with a national budget. President Wilson is not afraid to exert his indirect power, when he thinks it is necessary. There may be whole classes of appropriations—such as swollen bills for public buildings, or too large expenditure on rivers and harbors—to which he will let it be known that he is opposed. In this way he can give his support to chairmen on the floor of the House. But it is in committee rooms, and in the give-and-take debate in the Committee of the Whole House, that the most valiant strokes for common sense and economy in governmental outlay can be dealt. It is hard work. It is, for the most part, thankless work. Not only is constant vigilance required on the part of a watch-

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dog of the Treasury, but willingness to make himself disagreeable, to set his teeth in predatory intent. No glory and small praise can be won by such labors, but they are really indispensable. And though the Democratic leaders in the House have given up for the present the plan for a complete and scientific budget, we may still look to them to assert their party authority, and to make use of their official position in order to prevent the spending of $1,250,000,000 of public money from appearing like a game of grab-bag.

BILLS AND THEIR FATES.

Our Legislatures have just had a staggering compliment paid to them. Every bill that has been introduced in any of them during the past year has been recorded, with the date of its introduction, the name of the introducer, a hint of its purpose, and its final disposition, all in a single volume. One would have said that a volume that held all this must put the hugest unabridged dictionary to shame, in size as in dulness. But not so. As "Coin" was fancied to have startled the financial leaders of Chicago by telling them in how small a space all the gold in the world could be packed, so the editors and publishers of this "Official Index to State Legislation" will surprise any who look at it by what they have been able to do in the way of conciseness. A line is given to each bill, and an even hundred bills are dismissed upon the normal page, a skilful diversity of type saving the solid mass from a too monotonous appearance. It is something to be able to hold in one hand all the wisdom and unwisdom of two score Legislatures, but it must be remembered that their worst follies are not to be found in a volume like this. Only Congress is bold enough to print, not merely what it does, but what it says.

The subjects of the flood of bills are as numerous as the greatest lover of variety could desire. On April 9, four resolutions were introduced in the Michigan Senate. The first authorized Senator Hofma to visit the University and the State public school at Coldwater; the second provided for a commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of Lee's surrender; the third appropriated $27 for some one's services as committee clerk, and the fourth gave the Ford Motor Company permission to take motion pictures of the Senate. All of these were adopted, as had been one a month earlier to authorize the purchase of a dictionary for the use of the Senate. Those who make much of the haste with which our Legislatures transact business should reflect upon the purchase of this dictionary. Although the Senate had met on the 6th of January, there is no record of an attempt to spend the people's money for a dictionary until the 10th of March. By that time, it is only fair to presume, the necessity of such a work had been amply demonstrated. It is Michigan, too, that makes a pretty display of sentiment now and then. Its Senate sympathizes with one of its members in his illness, and congratulates two others upon their birthdays. Nor is Illinois far behind. None of its Senators, apparently, were ill or had birthdays, but its innate courtesy found vent in a resolution congratulating Lieut.-Gov. O'Hara upon his thirty-third birthday, and in others expressing sympathy with members in the loss of a brother, a father, a father-in-law, and a mother-in-law. Surely the destinies of a State are safe in such hands.

Of obviously freak bills, there are very few. An Indiana legislator proposed to prohibit the manufacture of sleighs and bob sleds of which the runners were less than 56 inches apart, and a California Senator introduced a bill which provided for the dissolution of corporations that failed to pay dividends. This bill died in committee. Death at some point on the long route between introducer and Governor was the fate of most of these bills. Sixty-six of the first hundred introduced in the Colorado Senate in January fell by the way, and eighty-one of the first hundred introduced in the House. Most bills that are lost die in committee. Many pass one house, to fail in the other; many are done to death by the cruel method of indefinite postponement. Rarely does one suffer the tragedy of a bill in Arkansas, opposite which is printed the laconic story: "Failed to pass (tie vote)." California was saved from a number of bills by the pocket veto, while Illinois had a penchant for tabling.

Far the largest number of bills relate to public officers, including boards, commissions, departments, and employees. Next come appropriation bills, and some distance behind these measures concerning cities, corporations, counties, highways, schools, and taxes. Optimists will find reason for their faith in the fact that bills on art greatly outnumber those on arson, that bigamy is a much less popular subject than birds, and that libel and slander receive less than half the attention given to libraries. Pennsylvania seems to lead all the rest in the total number of bills introduced, but this may be a false impression, since she is apparently the only State to count as "introduced" in one house bills that have come from the other. Eliminating these, New York must bear the doubtful honor of leading in this branch of legislative activity. Her Senators were responsible for 1,647 bills, and the members of the Assembly for 1,709, a total of 3,356. The Constitutional Convention had 725 amendments before it, first and last. California and Massachusetts press New York in number of bills, the Western State having had about 2,900 and the Eastern 2,800. Alabama, where the Legislature meets only once in four years, had 1,150.

Foreign Correspondence

THE RESULTS OF LORD DERBY'S RECRUITING SCHEME—PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF A CANVASSER.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, December 6.

The appointment of Lord Derby on October 6 as director-general of recruiting marked two definite changes in our methods of carrying on the war: (1) The abandonment of a casual, haphazard scheme of recruiting for one more systematic and scientific; and (2) a distinct recognition of the fact that the provision of men for the army ought to be separated from the task of equipping and managing them. It is conceivable that a more logical nation would have envisaged these necessities from the very first; but it is also pretty clear that, Englishmen being what they are, our Government would have made a serious mistake in trying to enforce them in advance of public opinion.

In Lord Derby the occasion seems to have quite definitely found the man. He is a typical Englishman, of the Lancashire brand—a clear-headed, straight, blunt, businesslike personality, full of good humor and good sense, indifferent to criticism, and with an adequate comprehension of his fellow-countrymen. Though he has filled Ministerial office, was an excellent military censor in the Boer War, and is said to be one of the most efficient Parliamentary whips the Unionists ever had, he is yet best known as a successful sportsman—a member of the Jockey Club, a good shot, the owner of race-horses. Even his mistakes tend to endear him to his fellows; and his recent frank and unreserved apology to Lord Ribblesdale has only helped to increase his popularity. His direct and unmistakable language is a refreshing contrast to certain Parliamentary ambiguities with which we have lately been treated; and it certainly will not be his fault if any misapprehension remains as to any man's position towards the present canvass for recruits.

The general procedure of the Derby recruiting scheme may be briefly summarized as follows: The Mayor or other local authority is called upon to form a central committee for the prosecution of a canvass for recruits

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in the district over which he presides. The central committee appoints directors in each ward to carry on the actual house-to-house canvass, and these directors in turn procure the canvassers to do this. These canvassers are supplied with "white" cards, duplicating the "blue" cards furnished to the local committees by the War Office, and containing particulars as to all the eligible men in their districts who have not yet enlisted; and it is their business to enter, in a space provided for the purpose, the replies of the canvassed men. When these replies express unwillingness to enlist, the reason alleged has to be stated. The way of the canvassers was prepared by a letter addressed by Lord Derby to all eligible men, explaining the situation and appealing to their patriotism. From the results of this "white-card canvass" the military authorities will draw up lists, divided into forty-six groups, of men willing to enlist. The twenty-three groups of unmarried men, arranged according to age (from nineteen to forty), will be called up first. Then the corresponding groups of married men. Arrangements are made for consulting, so far as possible, the wishes of the men themselves, both as to the branches of the army they desire to join and as to their preference for immediate service with the colors or a place in the army reserve. Infantry are specially required, and preference will be given to married men for vacancies in the Royal Army Medical Corps and the Army Service Corps. Special local tribunals have been formed to hear the protests of those who think they have good reasons for not enlisting or for being relegated to a later group; but to get the advantage of these tribunals a man must have appeared for attestation before the military authorities.

An immediate effect of the promulgation of Lord Derby's scheme was the flocking of young men to the recruiting offices before the canvass actually began. Lord Derby's letter seems to have convinced them that the country's crisis really was serious, and that this would probably be their last chance to volunteer. At least this was the case in the district in which your correspondent took a share in the direction of the campaign, and it seems to have been a pretty general phenomenon. Volunteer canvassers presented themselves in adequate numbers, and as a rule proved themselves men of discretion and common-sense. As a matter of fact, no resentment whatever seems to have been shown to their inquisitions; and the case of a Welsh miner, who was sentenced to a month's imprisonment for the too material nature of his answers, remains unique.

The canvass is not yet quite at an end, and it is too early to formulate a definite verdict as to its success. If, however, I may take my own district as typical, and venture into the dangerous region of prophecy, I should be inclined to say that men enough are coming forward voluntarily to carry on the war for a considerable period, possibly for as much as a year more. This opinion must, however, be qualified by the fact that we have not been definitely informed just how many men are wanted to effect this end, so that my guess may be fairly accurate as to the number of men obtained, and yet wide of the mark as to the time the supply will last. In any case, Lord Derby's canvass will have very decidedly paved the way for conscription, whatever be the real *portée* of the words I italicize in the following quotation from Mr. Asquith's speech of November 2: "So far as I am concerned, I should certainly say the obligation of the married man to enlist ought not to be enforced or binding upon him unless and until—I hope by voluntary effort *and if not by some other means*—the unmarried men are dealt with first." The latest announcement of Lord Derby declares that so far the campaign has not been quite so successful as he hoped.

The general result of the canvass shows very few men ready to put themselves on record as absolutely unwilling to fight for their country. The conscientious or positive objector is rare; most of the reasons assigned relate to difficulties that might conceivably be met by legislation or otherwise. In many cases "unfitness" simply means alien birth. In our district no fewer than twenty-seven alien nationalities were represented, including eight Americans and eleven Germans. The employer sometimes gives more trouble than the man himself; but this obstacle will be dealt with in due course, and with short shrift. On the whole, the British patriot has good reason to feel proud of his younger fellow-citizens; but perhaps the deepest impression is the pathos of these white and blue cards, with their tales of scanty professional incomes, struggling little businesses, numerous dependents, and feet just planted on the first rung of the ladder. More and more was it borne in upon one that some provision must be made for the wives and children of such men, which, in the case of their bread-winner's death, would save them from the descent to a lower standard of comfort and culture. The men of private means risk their lives; but these men risk not only their lives but the well-being of their dependents. Something, not inconsistent with democratic equality, must be done to meet such cases. Somehow or other, the superfluity of the wealthy must be used to equalize the risks of the men who combine in their own person both their lives and their capital. Conscription of property is logically bound up with conscription of body; and we have to face this problem. Government has been preaching economy to us; but we need some more spectacular sacrifice of property on the part of our potentates and plutocrats than has yet been vouchsafed. The fine spiritual attitude of France is symbolized in the simplicity, unpretentiousness, and unselfishness of Gen. Joffre; but England is still waiting for the dominating figure that will equally incorporate the best British characteristics in this time of stress.

FRENCH ARGUMENT IN AMERICA'S CASE—THUS SPOKE CLAUSEWITZ.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, December 11.

In the case of the United States vs. Germany, a leader writer in the Paris *Temps* has produced something which may be taken as solid reasoning or as logical exercise, according to the reader's temper. I have tried to compress its length into the usual form.

The starting-point in principle is Clausewitz's definition of war—"an act of violence to compel the adversary to accomplish our will." To this, in 1871, another German philosopher of war, Adolf Lasson, added that the state of war does not necessarily imply diplomatic rupture, but may "keep up negotiations to which it gives a basis by showing in facts the reciprocal relations of the two powers." So, to achieve the end of war, it is not at all necessary to crush the vanquished as by an invasion, "so long as the party with whom you are making war submits to your constraint and threat and *intimidation*." Moreover, "whatever your adversary cedes as a consequence must enable you to create a new legal status between the two nations."

Taking this as a major premise, the concrete instances to form a minor are found in what has been happening between Germany and the United States.

(1.) Did Germany, that is, the German Government, acting through the intermediary of agents known to it and for whom it is responsible, exercise "acts of violence" on the United States, that is, on the goods or persons of citizens of the United States?

(2.) Did such acts of violence, even when local or isolated, have for their aim to exercise on the Government of the United States moral constraint or menace or intimidation, so as to lead it to make concessions of a nature to create a new legal status between the two nations?

The answer to these questions must be sought in the facts of the case.

From the Lusitania to the Ancona, there were American victims on ships torpedoed against all the rights of nations. Yes or no, were they killed by German war engines or marines with the aim of bringing pressure to bear on the American Government so as to induce it to *cede* a part of its sovereign right to assure the free circulation of its citizens on all seas?

Mills have been burned; ships have been endangered or sunk by engines laid in American waters; strikes have been declared in factories of arms, munitions, and military equipment, and there have been individual acts of violence on the very soil of the United States. Yes or no, were these acts of violence committed by or for persons who keep their German or Austro-Hungarian nationality? And had such acts for their aim to bring to bear on American manufacturers, shippers, or bankers material or moral pressure of a nature to injure the liberty of their acts—a liberty guaranteed by the sovereignty of the state, whose first duty it is to assure public order and enable its citizens to exercise, at home and abroad, trade which is not contrary to law or international treaties?

In sum, yes or no, did these acts of violence have, to the knowledge of the German Government, for their aim, even though disavowed, to interfere with the exercise of its sovereignty by the American Republic—or any one of the States which constituted the Republic—the better to secure respect for their rights abroad?

The French writer does not pretend that the answer to these questions belongs to any one but citizens of the United States. Peoples, like individuals, can always cede a part of their rights, even from simple fear of a stronger power. And peoples, like individuals, may find good reasons with which to mask that sacrifice of their self-love which their prudence dictates. This should not prevent the drawing of the logical conclusion of the case.

"Every impartial mind will acknowledge that Germany has carried on against the goods and lives of American citizens a series of acts having for their well-determined

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aim the intimidation of the Government of the United States, with a view to constrain it to accept certain exigencies of German policy."

Now this answers exactly to the definition of war given by German authorities like Clausewitz and Lasson, no matter how occult the acts may have been or how officially disavowed, yet effective and serving the Imperial will. For, in the German theory, the state of war does not consist in the *exchange* of violence between two or more states, but in the simple *exercise* of the force of one state to the prejudice of another which it wishes to dominate.

"Examine attentively what is passing before our eyes between the two great Powers which are keeping up a 'conversation' across the Atlantic. There can be no doubt that, under an official exterior of peace maintained by Germany, there is a situation of fact constituting on the part of Germany this veritable state of war. Although not declared, it has none the less costly and murderous consequences, with this peculiarity—the resulting losses strike exclusively American riches or lives, without anything to balance these losses on the side of Germans."

This, if you will, is a new and occult fashion of making war, like "larvated" disease; but it exists in spite of all official protestations. The French writer goes on to compare it with a peculiar kind of strike organized in late years. This consists in the systematic disorganizing of factories or mills by methodical *sabotage* of the products manufactured or even of the instruments of production.

The ordinary strike has its force from collective action. This new kind of strike works hiddenly by isolated acts committed by nameless individuals. This aids that, and it has been hailed as a step forward in Syndicalist conflicts. It has taken the name of *grève perlée* ("drop-by-drop strike"). So this new German method of making war gives us a "drop-by-drop war." But it is very real, and, as Lasson explains elegantly, "it is a state of war which does not involve the breaking off of diplomatic negotiations, but only adds to them certain new modalities!"

In fact, it reaches the end and aim of war, for this is accomplished, he says, when the other party (in this case the United States) "is subjected to the constraint, the menace, and the intimidation of its adversary" (in this case Germany). Unfortunately, in this case also, it fulfils the final cause of war in the German sense: "Whatever the subjected party cedes as a consequence must be sufficient to create a new legal status between the two nations."

The French writer has not gone into certain obvious questions: What effect will the cession of United States' rights to German demands enforced by this drop-by-drop war have on future American relations with other nations? What will be the effect of precedents thus created on the recognized international law of the future?

So far, as has been also remarked in France, Washington has been guided in its relations with England during the present war by very close adherence to the legality existing at the close of the American Civil War. If it should be possible to form a plausible body of international law from old remnants left unshattered during the present war and from new elements recognized at its close, this precedent of an undeclared drop-by-drop war will have to be borne in mind.

THE SIX HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF MORGARTEN.

By ARCHIBALD ALEXANDER.

GENEVA, November 30.

The six hundredth anniversary of the battle of Morgarten—the Swiss Bunker Hill—was celebrated with simplicity on Monday, November 15. It was thought that the independence and freedom of the nation were sufficiently manifest in the long lines of the gray-clad army which guards the frontier from the Jura and the Rhine to the Italian Alps. The village of Schwytz, about twenty-five miles from Lucerne, has never been a resort for tourists. It is, however, the capital of the canton, it was the centre of the events which culminated in the expulsion of the Austrians from Swiss territory, and it is the favorite point of departure for those who take part in the festival on the field of battle. One leaves the railway at the station, Schwytz-Seewen, on the Gothard route, and, taking the tramway, arrives in a few minutes at the village. The Sunday evening before the ceremonies was stormy. Snow covered the neighboring Mythen Mountains and swirled through the long street. Neither in Schwytz nor in Uri and Unterwald, the other original cantons, were the customary fires lighted on the mountains; but every window was illuminated, the bells were ringing, and the inns seemed too small to lodge the many visitors.

On Monday morning there was a salute of twenty-two guns, one for each of the Swiss cantons. Shortly afterwards a special train took the invited guests to Sattel, in the immediate neighborhood of Morgarten; but many, starting earlier, in spite of the falling snow, walked the six miles by the Schlagstrasse which leads over the hills from one village to the other. Not far from Sattel, on the hillside, is the small church of St. Jakob, built in memory of the battle. Close by in the open air had been placed an altar, before which were wooden benches for the civil and military authorities. The crowd made its way through the snow to this shrine where the patriotic and religious service began. After the singing of the "Schweizerpsalm" by a large chorus of men's voices, and a sermon by the Chamberlain Marty, mass was celebrated, with music by a military band and the singing societies, and at the close the assembly of nearly three thousand people joined in the Swiss national hymn, "Rufst du, mein Vaterland."

During the celebration of the mass the snow stopped falling, and at the close the sun was shining. The people passed in procession to the parish church of Sattel, amid the sound of cannon and bells. In bright relief upon the snow could be seen the modern uniforms of soldiers, and following these were descendants of those who fought at Morgarten, wearing the military garb of the fourteenth century. In the midst of the crowd might be seen the Federal and cantonal flags, and especially the historic "fanion" around which the confederates once rallied to achieve their victory. In the church a Te Deum was sung, which brought to a close the religious and more sentimental ceremonies of the day. Among the groups of men, especially among the mountaineers, with their armor and halberds, were faces which recalled those to be seen in the tapestries and paintings of the old Swiss monasteries and castles.

It would be hardly worth while to write of the simple pageant at Morgarten, near the Schwytz Mountains, were it not that the ceremony has a new significance in the present hour. As it was in the fourteenth century, so it is now, that Switzerland is in peril from its mighty neighbors. There is a noisy Pan-Germanic press, which tells the Federation that the interests of the Allemanian cantons are those of the Central Empires. There are also some in the French cantons who fear that unless their 500,000 bayonets are arrayed on the side of the Allies, the Swiss will become the vassals of Germany. But outside the larger towns, with their cosmopolitan and shifting population, there is a Swiss nation which is indifferent to the blandishments or threats of its neighbors. The Swiss have seen worse days than these. They have no ambition to extend their territory, even if that were possible. And the people as a whole, in its passion for independence, does not greatly differ from the men who took the oath at Grütli, and conquered the Austrians at Morgarten. For the present it is the Red Cross of Geneva which excites the enthusiasm and sympathy of the people. But the white cross of the Swiss ensign on the background, which is the color of blood, will never be carried into battle except in defence of Swiss neutrality and Swiss independence.

Notes from the Capital

WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT.

Five Federal judges—two of them, I believe, appointees of President Taft—chanced the other day to meet at a friend's house, where the conversation turned upon Mr. Taft's present activities. They were unanimous in their opinion of the value of the service he was doing the country by his temperate public discussion of current history from the point of view of one who had recently had much to do with making it. Then one of the party threw out the query: "If he is so competent to advise others, how came he to make no better showing for himself?" The rest shrank slightly from putting into words the thought that was in their minds, till one drew forth a chorus of assent by remarking: "He had too judicial a mind." And forthwith followed a round of stories of the ex-President which, if told of any ordinary citizen, would have been accepted as evidence of his insincerity of character, but which a psychologist would construe as a sign of an abnormal terror of making a mistake—a trait which causes so many good men to come to ground between two stools.

The weakness is an amiable one, doubtless, but it has cost Taft more friends than all his other amiable traits have won for him. Human nature is so constituted that the man of honest purpose who goes ahead, doing his best for the hour, but leaving Providence to look out for the loose ends, will bind his fellows to him by stronger ties, regardless of his many blunders, than he who

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never finishes weighing the two sides of any question. Probably down at the root of the difference lies the fact that lack of self-confidence begets mistrust in others. Graduating from the bench into the executive field, Taft carried his judicial habit so far that no one dared accept as final the decisions he had reached at bedtime, lest he should change his mind before the next daybreak. A judge, it may be, could afford to shift position in this way, because it is part of his duty and training to keep his conclusions to himself till the time arrives for their official promulgation; but Taft, after he had thrown off the conventional restraints of the bench, acquired a bad habit of thinking aloud, as it were; and a frankness which under other conditions might have been regarded as a positive virtue became almost a vice in a President who, with such enormous responsibilities resting on him, would let it be known to-day that he had settled upon one plan or policy, only to reverse himself completely to-morrow, even though the overnight change were the fruit of more mature deliberation.

Another and very serious shortcoming in Taft as President, having its source in his judicial experience, was his tendency to sudden and impulsive retorts upon whoever happened to offend him. Here was the arbitrary power of the judge to punish contempt, exercised far away from the courtroom. He could not throw the offenders into jail, perhaps, but he could pass a summary moral judgment upon them, without giving them a chance to correct his misunderstandings. The sort of candor he was so proud of visiting upon others he could not brook when turned upon himself, and his sensitiveness was so keen that he would imagine an adverse criticism where none had been made or intended.

Now, however, the situation is once more altered. Taft is neither held in restraint by the traditions of a court nor impelled to an unwonted promptness of decision by the pressure of an administrative routine. He has no personal following to insist, as Grant's did in 1880, on his shaping his words and conduct with a view to reëlection, nor is he faced with a national financial or economic crisis which can be met by his party only under his direct leadership, as was Cleveland in 1892. The constant demand upon him for addresses to be delivered to one or another body of his fellow citizens affords a natural and unobtrusive outlet for any of his opinions on public affairs which he thinks might fit the needs of the moment, and the independence of his position before the country is a sufficient guarantee that these opinions are not tinctured by any ulterior motive. In spite of a few strong native likes and dislikes, Taft's detached judgments are apt to be fair and sane; and their forms of expression are pretty carefully thought out nowadays, for the lesson of the Winona speech, dictated to a stenographer between stations on a railway journey, has left too deep an impress on his memory to permit of his ever falling into that particular error of carelessness again.

In Taft's example we may read the best possible answer to the once haunting question: "What shall we do with our ex-Presidents?" The younger Adams answered it in his way by coming to Congress and helping to make laws for his successors to execute; the old Virginia triumvirate lent much time and thought in their retirement to the upbuilding of the institutions of their State; the Harrison of our generation resumed his law practice, and pleaded his country's cause successfully before an international tribunal; Hayes renewed his early associations as a friend among friends. Taft has effected a rather clever combination of private and public employment. His professorship at Yale brings him into close touch with the rising generation, the trend of whose thought he can influence for reasonableness; while his ready response to calls from all over the Union, for occasions which will assure him a large audience on the spot and a yet larger one through the press, enables him to interpret for the American people many of the political and social omens of the day, the full significance of which might otherwise be overlooked or misapprehended.

TATTLER.

The Rejection of Consciousness

THE MEANING OF SO-CALLED REALISM, AS ILLUSTRATED IN THE NEW REALISM OF CONTEMPORARY PHILOSOPHY AND THE REALISM OF FICTION.

By WARNER FITE.

In the following I shall venture the suggestion that the motive underlying the so-called realism is a distaste for consciousness, and especially for the humanistic implications of consciousness. I shall illustrate the point by reference to the "new realism" of recent philosophy, with a side-reference to the realism of fiction.

I.

The new realism was formally presented to the world in 1910 in the form of a "Platform" signed by six philosophers of Harvard, Columbia, and Princeton. Among the purposes of the platform was the laudable one of emancipating a bored philosophical world from a bondage of more than two centuries to the obsessions of "epistemology." The chief of these obsessions, which we inherit both from Descartes and from Locke, is the idea that we are certainly in possession of our mental states, but only doubtfully in possession of the objects supposed to be represented by them. As a result of this obsession, we find ourselves in the position of a man who holds an elevator receipt for wheat, which he may exchange for a similar receipt—for wheat or for gold, or what not—but which can never be made to produce anything but another representative document. Is there, then, an external or "real" world? The question seems hopeless. Either the problem is meaningless or the assumptions need to be revised. The new realists have undertaken to revise the assumptions.

But not content with destroying "epistemology" by forbidding all discussion of the theory of knowledge, the new realist extends his attack to "idealism." Every one has use at times for some term of malediction. I have heard of a little Quaker boy who called his antagonist "a nasty little You." A new realist would have called him an idealist. And in his view idealism is exhaustively defined in the statement that "the being of things is their being known." This doctrine has usually been distinguished by philosophers as "subjective idealism." It is also a question whether the history of philosophy affords an example of a philosopher who has subscribed without qualification to the subjective limitation. Berkeley, who usually plays the part of "the idealist" in the neo-realistic drama, appears to have been less interested in denying the existence of things independent of our perception than in proving that they could not be "inert" and "unthinking" things. Nor does it appear that, if we deny that the being of things is exhausted in their being known, we must affirm that being and being known are unrelated. What happens to a thing in being known is a nice and complicated question. The new realist is, however, averse to complications, and finds it simpler to leave knowledge out of the question.

And since knowledge is included in the more comprehensive conception of consciousness, it will be still simpler if consciousness as such can be reduced to a position of insignificance, or, perhaps, of nonentity. This is the point at which the neo-realistic argument against idealism and epistemology is reinforced by the argument for the relational theory of consciousness. So far as I know, the origin of the relational theory is to be found in an essay by William James, bearing the suggestive title, "Does Consciousness Exist?" It is a rather curious reflection that, while most modern philosophy assumes as beyond question that we know our states of consciousness better than we know the things of which they are conscious—a view which also seems inescapable to the first reflections of common-sense—yet few persons even pretend to tell us what a state of consciousness is. We know what a table is, but what is an idea of a table? And how does it differ from a real table? James answers the question by telling us that in substance there is no difference. Our experience yields us but one kind of table, which has to serve both as idea and as real table. It is then one or the other, according to its "context" or relations to other items of experience. Thus (to change the illustration) a pile of building material may be followed immediately by the vision of a house; or the house may come some months later as the final term in a series of causal transformations necessary to convert the materials into a house. In the first relation both materials and house are states of consciousness; in the second they are objective facts. Apart from these relations, they are neither; in the language of neo-realism, they are "neutral entities."

According to this view, consciousness—that is to say, you and I—is merely one of countless possible "relations" in an impersonal world of neutral "experience." With regard to the precise character of the consciousness-relation, neo-realistic opinion is

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divided; and the variety of formulation leads one to suspect that the difficulty of defining consciousness as a relation has been slightly underestimated. By one wing, apparently the left wing, consciousness is defined, somewhat darkly, as a relation of "meaning." The bricks and stones may actually form a house, or they may also "mean" a house—which appears to involve the mystical conclusion that bricks and stones have minds of their own. According to the right wing, bricks and stones become facts of consciousness when they are responded to in the "specific manner" of an organism having a nervous system; for example, to say that a brick has become part of consciousness may be only to say that somebody has picked it up. This is in accord with the new fashion of treating consciousness as "behavior." But what may be the "specific manner" of response peculiar to living organisms, is not precisely defined. If it should turn out to be merely an intelligent manner, the work of defining the conscious relation would be still to be begun.

I have in mind a lad whose mother, wishing to let him down gently, told him that, while Santa Claus was not a real person, yet the term might fitly be used to refer to the spirit of brotherly kindness supposed to pervade Christendom annually about the 25th of December. The boy's version, as overheard later, was to the effect that Santa Claus was nothing but a "rotten old spirit." I fear that, in a similar fashion, many naïve persons will accuse the neo-realists of making us nothing but rotten old relations. And they may also suspect that the term "relation" is only a pleasant way of telling us that, like Santa Claus, we really do not exist. This suspicion may be strengthened by the realistic insistence upon the point that consciousness is a rather casual relation, certainly not more significant than any other relation that might be named; and perhaps by the subsequent reflection that the typically relational beings are the man in the moon and the bear in the heavens—from which the relations constituting ourselves appear to be in no wise different in kind. But if any doubt remained, it has been dispelled by Mr. Holt, who in a recent essay has told us that the mission of the neo-realists was to "abolish" this subjective nonsense about "consciousness."

How shall we explain this aversion on the part of supposedly conscious beings to the fact of their consciousness? The answer may be found, I think, in the uncritical reverence displayed by the neo-realists for natural science. Far from accepting the traditional rôle of the philosopher as the critic of science, the new realist aims to win intellectual reputability for philosophy by adopting the scientific point of view. Now, from the standpoint of natural science, consciousness is a peculiarly exasperating fact, a fact seriously disturbing to the scientific unity of the universe. The phenomena of animal life may plausibly be reduced to phenomena of chemical change; and the nervous system may then be invoked to perform all the functions of thought. But any admission that these functions are also self-conscious presents an ominous difficulty, amounting, indeed, to an admission of the supernatural. For, if the standpoint of those who are conscious be taken into account, it appears that our knowing what we do involves nothing less than an interference with the course of nature. It is therefore simpler (and for science the simpler is always the truer) to banish consciousness from the realm of positive facts and to treat it as an "epiphenomenon." But it will be still simpler if consciousness can be evaporated by definition into a merely casual relation. And this is the service undertaken by the new realism.

II.

The new realism is philosophy in the pose of natural science. If we turn to the realistic novel, we find art in a similar pose. The *roman expérimental* is fiction equipped with all the apparatus of scientific method, a technological vocabulary, a carefully compiled list of facts (only the bibliography of sources is wanting), a disavowal of all theoretical preconception, and a sublime contempt for all human interests—with the honorable exception of sex. To dwell upon this aspect of realism would be to repeat much that has been admirably said in a recent article by Prof. Stuart Sherman. I shall therefore content myself with pointing the analogy.

Historically, the realistic novel is a protest against the older romantic novel with the happy ending—which was always the reward of virtue. The romantic happy ending was due, however, less to the natural productiveness of virtue than to some rather irrelevant beneficence on the part of nature or the social order. Now, such a consummation implies that the world is a moral order; indeed, a supernatural order. Yet the supernatural is not finally disposed of by the elimination of happy chance. What if, by the exercise of moral courage, intelligence, and foresight, virtue may produce its own reward? This implies the efficiency of consciousness. And this, as I have suggested, is still, from a standpoint strictly naturalistic, to admit the supernatural.

Accordingly, in the strictly scientific novel, consciousness is made ineffective. Either the characters are preternaturally stupid, like the husband of Madame Bovary (and French husbands in general), or they are persons of unusual intelligence whose powers of action are obstructed by introspection. In Russian realism it seems that every one who is not a clod is, like Turgenieff's chance-acquaintance, a Hamlet—"of the District Tschigri" or some other district. Dmitri Roudine is uncertain whether he is a hero or a humbug. Neschdanoff, in "Virgin Soil," is a nihilist who discovers in the end that his nihilism is merely æsthetic. Even honest Bezukhov, in Tolstoy's "War and Peace," is haunted by a constant sense of not meaning what he says. All this may perhaps be true of Russian character. But it seems that in English realism intelligence is similarly inefficient, and indeed especially prone to disaster. Hardy's "Return of the Native," for example, is a tragedy of seemingly trivial errors. The dominant note of literary realism is the helplessness of man before the accidents of events; and in the realistic world events always go wrong.

So uniformly, indeed, as to suggest that the dice may be loaded; or perhaps that a *diabolus* may have taken the place of the romantic *deus ex machina*. Following the young Lucien de Rubempré through several volumes of his sordid career, we hope, of course, to see him win in the end, if only as a fair return for reading so much about him; just as he is about to grasp success, Balzac destroys him by a single moment of self-forgetfulness. In "The Return of the Native" a rather hasty misapprehension sends Yeobright's mother to her death; a little later, the wife, Eustacia, would have been saved, had she chanced to see Yeobright's letter. In "A Pair of Blue Eyes" we find a rejected and a repentant lover meeting on their way to a reconciliation with the same beloved, both then to be confronted with her dead body. All of this is more suggestive of a bad dream than of real life. In my own experience, the world of inexplicable mischance, in which we play the part of paralyzed spectators, is the world of nightmare. And when I note the occasions in daily life when nature and circumstance seem most overpowering and inevitable, I find that they are the times when thought is dull and the brain is weary. It strikes me as significant that much of Hardy's world is the semi-hypnotic world of his brooding and mystical heroes, the world, not of clear consciousness, but of semi-consciousness.

For in waking life it seems that our consciousness of living does enable us more or less to control the order of events; just so far, indeed, as we have a clear grasp of our situation and a clear self-consciousness with regard to our motives. The world of real living is not inevitable nature, but nature more or less responsive to our purposes. *Natura parendo vincitur;* by coming to terms with Nature we make use of her; and the resultant real world is the fruit of a transaction between two parties. The fault of the happy ending of old-fashioned romanticism was not that it was happy, but only that it was gratuitous; there was no transaction to support it. I have in mind, for example, Octave Feuillet's "Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre"—the story of the young and impoverished marquis who is too proud to propose to the wealthy maid while he himself is without fortune. The problem seems insoluble. But happily an apparently worthless legacy turns out to be worth millions. This, of course, is merely stupid. And it is wholly unreal. Yet it is equally unreal to suppose that if man and maid are quite in earnest, they are going to be deterred by the etiquette of fortune. In real life love usually finds a way; and the happy ending is both the logical and the natural conclusion. In real life no romance is shattered once for

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all by the fact that the young lady is not at home when the young man calls primed for a proposal. Obstacles are overcome by ingenuity. The task of the novelist is then to provide the ingenuity, and to make it a logical and clearly motived ingenuity. To solve the problem by a *deus ex machina* or, on the other hand, to treat it as essentially insoluble—both courses are alike unreal. The realism that chooses the latter is no truer of actual life than the romanticism that chooses the former. Such realism describes life, not as life is, but as it ought to be from the standpoint of natural science.

III.

A similar situation confronts us when we return to the realism of philosophy and science. Realism claims the special support of common-sense, assuming, evidently, that common-sense is both simple and clear. But we need only glance at the common notion of real to perceive that it is complicated by at least two motives. If anything is to be called real (rather than merely imaginary), it must be in some sense independent of the person who perceives it; that is, it cannot be wholly his own creation. On the other hand, nothing can be called real which is not in some sense, actual or potential, a part of our immediate human experience. And an experience is called "very real" when it is a vividly conscious experience and gives us a sense of close contact with the object.

Realists appear to assume that common-sense will be satisfied with exclusive emphasis upon the objective motive. Realistic science, in particular, which is the model for realistic philosophy, claims the special merit of having emancipated the objective reality from all human interpretation. The first thing that a novice in science learns is to forget that nature is offended by a vacuum or that the iron loves the magnet. Realistic science then goes further and emancipates the reality from human perception. The novice learns that what he took to be color or sound is really only vibration; that heat is really motion; that, indeed, nothing is "really" just what it is perceived to be. This apparently solid matter turns out in the end to be a collection of countless independent atoms, which a popular imagination takes to be so many colorless (*i. e.*, gray) microscopic billiard-balls, but concerning which it seems that science can tell us nothing that is intelligible in terms of concrete experience.

But a reality wholly unrelated to experience is a little more than even realism asks. Such a reality savors of "metaphysics." Now, therefore, we learn that science is especially distinguished by the fact that she alone keeps close to actual human experience. It now turns out, somewhat unexpectedly, that matter and energy, atoms, ether, and vibrations, were not real atoms, or what not, but only so many shorthand formulæ for stating the order of events in experience. In a word, science is nothing but a record of what we perceive. But lest this should appear to imply an abandonment of the objective principle, we are carefully informed that the character of what we perceive is wholly unrelated to the fact that *we* perceive it. In other words, realism, in rejecting "metaphysics," still stands for the unvarnished fact.

As I prefer to put it, realism stands for denatured human experience. For without denying that something is meant by an unvarnished fact, it strikes me that the phrase as it stands expresses a contradiction in terms. I may distinguish the fact as presented in your varnish from the fact as it appears to me, and thus, by allowing for your varnish and for mine, procure for the fact some measure of independence. But a fact without any varnish whatever seems to me, if facts are to be related to perception, to be no fact at all; and how the world is to be described from nobody's point of view, I cannot imagine. When I try to state facts in this fashion I find myself in difficulty. The chair, for example, is the favorite philosophical illustration of a very solid fact. Yet when I attempt to describe the chair, I am confronted at once by arms, legs, seat, and back—terms that express a human prejudice; and when I try to dehumanize my description, I seem to find no terms that would make the chair recognizable, none that do not seem to transform a familiar human fact into something rather "metaphysical."

And if it be objected that my way of knowing, or of describing, the chair leaves the real chair untouched, then I am compelled to wonder what that particular reality would be in a world that knew nothing of chairs—in a primitive world, for example, where every one squatted. Something real, I do not doubt; yet still something intelligible, intelligible now from the standpoint of primitive life. If an automobile would cease to be an automobile in a world without carburetors, I cannot see how it could remain an automobile in a world without chauffeurs. When I try to conceive what that reality would be which is wholly unaltered by being known—to distinguish what the chair is in itself from what it becomes when known to be a chair, the cold fact from the humanly familiar and effective fact—I seem to find nothing but that metaphysical, atomic chair—the chair as varnished by the scientific point of view—which is not "really" a chair and is only doubtfully known.

It seems, then, that to be a realist is not so simple a task as it appears. We live in a world which we have surely not originated, a real and not a merely imaginary world; and, on the other hand, we live in a world which, just in being real, is more or less familiar and (strangely) more or less responsive to our efforts, and which, in its familiarity and responsiveness, reflects at every point our human point of view. In a word, the real world, for philosophy as well as for literature, is the fruit of a transaction between two parties; and a realism in which either of the parties is ignored is a mere pseudo-realism.

Book Notes and Byways

THOMAS DALE, AN EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY GENTLEMAN.

Epilogue to the Recruiting Officer, *written* by THOMAS DALE, M. D., *and spoken by Silvia in Man's Cloaths, at the Opening of the New Theatre, in* Charles-Town *in* South Carolina [February 12, 1736].

In truth, dear ladies! 'tis a curious matter,
To prove, *Tiresias*-like, *a double nature;*
To bid farewel to petticoats and stitching,
And wearing breeches, try their force bewitching;
From belle to belle with jaunty air to rove,
Play idle tricks, and make unmeaning love;
With scandal and quadrille address the dames,
And strut the fair ones into wanton flames.

But faith! I pity *Rose*, poor willing tit,
Of all her joys, and promis'd transport, bit;
Her eager amorous soldier prov'd at last,
As *Cynthia* cold, or *Farinelli* chast! . . .

Thus far the bard;—but sure the stupid rogue
Ne'er wrote before, or ne'er wrote epilogue;
For young performers no excuse to frame!
To *your indulgence lay no artful claim!*
I'll beg myself then;—Pray forgive our fright;
Think, ladies, on the fears of a *first-night;*
Kindly accept our faint, tho' willing toils;
Withdraw *not from us your accustom'd smiles;*
Nor mark how ill I personate the rake;
But spare *Jack Wilful* for *Monimia's** sake.

Such, with the omission of three lines of questionable taste, was the "occasional" poem recited at the close of the initial performance in the first regular theatre of Charleston. "The Recruiting Officer," a vivacious comedy by George Farquhar, was revived by the Stage Society of London last January, and called forth an interesting comment from Mr. William Archer in a succeeding issue of the *Nation*. With their jaunty spirit, so well in tone with the lines of Farquhar's play, the verses deserve publication where they are found, in the London *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1736. This magazine, which was soon to give employment to a struggling young literary genius by the name of Samuel Johnson, numbered few Americans among its contributors. Now one will scarcely believe that these lines resulted from their author's first and only courtship of the muses, or that "the stupid rogue" would charge himself with never before having written epilogue, unless the charge were untrue. And yet we shall probably search for Dale's name in vain through the promised "Cambridge History of American Literature," and also through numerous volumes, specifically devoted to "Southern Literature," and even to South Carolina writers. On the other hand, this early American physician has obtained casual mention in almost every history of his State, and has furnished material for the special student on more than one count. It is time, then, that somebody attempt to gather various items about Dale that have strayed into print, and to construct a brief biographical sketch.

Concerning Dale's birth we know nothing except that his father was "Mr. Francis Dale, apothecary in Hoxton, England." (See an article on the Brewton family by A. S. Salley in *South Carolina Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, II, 139, from which most of this

*In a footnote Dale explains that the actress who played Silvia, or Jack Wilful, in this comedy and spoke the epilogue, "had acted Monimia [in Otway's tragedy of 'The Orphan' the previous year] with great applause" from the Charleston audiences. See the *Nation*, XCVIII, 464.

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genealogical material is derived.) But by the spring of 1733, as two chance items in *The South Carolina Gazette* inform us, he was practicing his profession in Charleston and had wedded, in the aristocratic Saint Philip's Church, "Mrs. Mary Brewton," daughter of Colonel Miles Brewton, a prominent and wealthy Charlestonian. Near the end of the same year he earned some right to historical fame. A petition of Chief Justice Robert Wright, of South Carolina, to the British Board of Trade in London, dated December 17, 1733, complains of a certain act passed by the Provincial Assembly to regulate the courts of the province. "The Governor under the said Act," says Wright, "has lately granted commissions [as assistant judges] to Thomas Deale and Thomas Lamboll, esqrs., persons entirely ignorant of the laws, who assume an authority of over-ruling petitioner, in all judicial acts which they think proper, &c." ("Collections of the Historical Society of South Carolina," III, 304.) From other sources we learn more of the nature of this quarrel between the Chief Justice, on one side, and the Governor and the Assembly on the other. It seems that several decisions of the Chief Justice touching the ownership of certain lands in the province had displeased Gov. Johnson and his friends. Thereupon the Governor, under the statute mentioned, had appointed two laymen as assistant judges to serve without pay, but to have equal voice with the Chief Justice in the decision of cases. (See Smith, "South Carolina as a Royal Province," pp. 128, ff.) Later the obnoxious act was repealed by royal order, but Dale served as assistant judge for at least six years more. On the death of Wright in 1739, Lieut.-Gov. Bull, then acting as Governor, gave a special commission to Dr. Dale to preside over the Court of General Sessions *pro hac vice*. Bull desired to appoint Dale as regular Chief Justice, but his Council objected, and Benjamin Whitaker, a lawyer, was named instead.

The record of Dr. Dale's services as a jurist is not completed here. More responsibility was attached then than now to the office of justice of the peace in Carolina. For example, two justices of the peace sitting with three freeholders had the right for certain crimes to condemn slaves to capital punishment. Moreover, it is recorded that the Chief Justice, all the assistant judges, the members of the Governor's Council, the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Attorney-General, and numerous other citizens were duly commissioned justices of the peace in March, 1737. This office Dale held for many years, and not a few notices in the *Gazette* chronicle his sentencing slaves to hang for burglary or impounding stray horses or cows, in his magisterial capacity.

He was likewise in 1734 elected steward of Saint George's Club, an exclusive social and charitable organization that had been formed two years before, was at one time a member of the provincial Assembly, and served two terms as one of the three "commissioners of workhouse and markets." The workhouse, the place of detention for captured runaway slaves, was situated at some distance outside the town limits; the "new" Charleston market Dale and his fellow-commissioners placed on the present site of the City Hall, just across Broad Street from St. Michael's Church.

The domestic experiences of Dr. Dale must have been varied. A son, Thomas, was buried October 17, 1736, and an infant daughter, Mary, was buried with her mother in one coffin May 25, 1737. On November 23, 1738, he married Anne Smith, who died, apparently without issue, in January, 1743. On June 30 of the same year he took a third wife, Hannah Simons, who with three children survived him. One of these children, Thomas Simons, seems to have been the Thomas Dale, M.D., whose life is sketched in the "National Dictionary of Biography," and who was undoubtedly a son of the subject of the present article. But the year there given for the younger Dale's birth, 1729, is a palpable error for 1745, or thereabouts, a date that would be more consistent with Dale's admission into the University of Edinburgh in 1770, and his receipt of the M.D. degree in 1775.

The elder Dale seems to have died near the end of 1750. In the *Gazette* of January 7, 1751, appears an advertisement, by his widow and executrix, of the sale of all his personal estate "at his late dwelling house in *Church Street:* the sale to begin with his LIBRARY . . . and to continue every afternoon 'till all the said LIBRARY is sold, a catalogue of which may be seen." On another day were to be sold "the slaves, cattle and stock: among whom are several very valuable negroes; and the household goods" on still another. From these details we may surmise that Dr. Dale left a valuable estate. In his will was at least one private bequest. He directed "that his collection of dried plants and other specimens of natural history be packed up and sent to his friend, Dr. John Frederick Gronovius at Leyden." (Salley, op. cit.)

Surely this was a many-sided individual! The practicing physician, the lawmaker, the judge and embryonic Chief Justice, the member of civic boards, the husband of three wives within a decade, all of them belonging to the first circles of the conservative Charleston society, the owner of an apparently large private library, the naturalist and friend of Gronovius, the contributor of poetry to the *Gentleman's Magazine*—here is distinction enough for an eighteenth-century American gentleman.

ROBERT ADGER LAW.

Correspondence.

CONCERNING THOSE "NAGGING REMONSTRANCES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with a great deal of interest the letter by Mr. McCormick in your issue of December 2, entitled "Nagging Remonstrances." Since Mr. McCormick lives in a suffering nation, and feels, perhaps, with great anguish of soul the awfulness of this bloody conflict, I am not surprised that he should write as he does. Perhaps he voices the sentiments of the greater portion of the English people. But to us Americans, a good many of his assertions and contentions seem very much overdrawn. Mr. McCormick does not deny that England has resorted to illegal methods to enforce her control of the seas; he does not deny that his country has long ago thrown aside the Declaration of London as a scrap of paper, and has refused to abide by various stipulations of the Hague Convention. He does not deny that England has resorted to illegal means to cripple our foreign trade. He does not deny the essential truth of President Wilson's "nagging remonstrances." What is his justification? Forsooth, the United States, by a blockade of doubtful legality at the time of the Civil War, prevented the Confederate States from exporting their cotton to England.

While we recognize the value of precedent, the parallel cited by Mr. McCormick does not seem to us very applicable. The right of a sovereign state to control its commerce is an inalienable right. The blockade of the Confederacy was aimed at insurrection within our own borders. We never admitted that the Government of the Confederate States was a legal Government, nor was it recognized as such by Great Britain. We held that the rebellious States were legally and rightfully a part of the Union. If Ulster were in rebellion, no American would have cause to complain if by drastic measures aimed at the pacification of her rebellious subjects England should forbid them to export to us their usual quota of pure Irish linen. But as to the Central Powers, the case is different. They are well-recognized Governments, and England, we contend, has no legal right to cripple our non-contraband trade with them, or to revise the laws of the seas for her special accommodation. But, aside from the fact that Mr. McCormick's precedent will not hold, it remains true that two wrongs do not make a right. Even if we had used illegal methods in dealing with the Confederate States, that would be no justification for England's use of them to-day. Mr. McCormick would hardly try to justify a wrong done by himself by citing one done by me.

Mr. McCormick reminds us that we have remonstrated against England's illegal interference with our trade, in spite of the fact that England is condescending enough to buy immense quantities of ammunition from our manufacturers. *O tempora! O mores!* There was a time when we enjoyed only such privileges at sea as England was kind enough to grant us. But we have refused to acknowledge such suzerainty for a little over a century. We had been laboring under the pleasing delusion that the seas were free. Even yet we Americans are provincial enough to believe the seas *ought* to be free, and we are not yet ready to compromise what we believe to be our rights, and humanity's rights, because our manufacturers of munitions are just now enjoying a mess of pottage.

Mr. McCormick is literally right in his inference, so sneeringly stated, that President Wilson has been contending for something infinitely higher than a mere matter of trade. It was not so much because a few American lives were lost on the Lusitania that President Wilson raised his protesting voice, but because the eternal rights of our country and of humanity had been outraged. As the head of the greatest of neutral nations, President Wilson is keenly aware that he is bearing a solemn responsibility and has a high duty to perform. As he said in one of his recent speeches: "We are not trying to keep out of trouble. We are trying to preserve the foundations upon which peace can be rebuilt. Peace can be rebuilt only upon the ancient and accepted principles of international law, only upon those things which remind nations of their duties to each other, and, deeper than that, of their duties to mankind and to humanity. America has a great cause, which is not confined to the American continent. It is the cause of humanity itself." I am not a Democrat myself, but I should be the last man in America to accuse President Wilson of catering to the pro-German vote. President Wilson has striven to do his duty as he sees it.

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Mr. McCormick upbraids us for hypocrisy because we did not protest when the neutrality of Belgium was violated. Have we not protested? Not formally, of course, but there is scarcely a man among us whose soul has not been stirred to anguish at this outrage. It has made more pro-Ally sympathizers in this country, perhaps, than all other causes combined. The Germans know this. It may be that we should have given them official notice of our indignation. But what good would a mere formal notice have done? We are well aware, in spite of all her altruistic pretensions, that England never entered this war primarily on account of her love for poor, stricken Belgium. That played some part, but we know, and England knows, that her main purpose was to conserve her place in the sun. It is all very well for England, now that she is in this war, to maintain that she is championing the cause of human rights, international law, etc. But this furnishes little reason why she herself should violate those very rights which she pretends to champion. Mr. McCormick evidently believes that if we Americans reprobate the rape of Belgium, the place for us is in the trenches in Flanders. This would no doubt be pleasant for the English aristocrat who prefers the luxury of London life. Maybe then England will be willing to concede to us certain rights on the high seas! But we are not disposed to do any fighting in Flanders while England prates of German illegalities and at the same time tries to usurp the control of the seas, and while she answers our protests with denial or silent contempt, or, perchance, reminds us that she is favoring some of our rich people with orders for munitions in unprecedented quantities.

C. L. SNIDER.

Chapel Hill, N. C., December 2.

[The possession by the Confederacy of belligerent rights was granted almost from the outset of the war; indeed, it was implied in the very proclamation of the blockade. So far as the rules of the war are concerned, including those relating to blockade, the status of the Confederacy was the same as that of any belligerent nation; nor did the United States Government pretend to base any of its claims in regard to the blockade upon "the right of a sovereign state to control its commerce."

As for our correspondent's sneer at the "English aristocrat," we think it only right to point out that it is rendered futile by the facts.—ED. THE NATION.]

AMERICAN AMBULANCE CORPS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with interest and pleasure the tribute paid by your discriminating London correspondent, Mr. James F. Muirhead, to the American Volunteer Ambulance Corps and Mr. Richard Norton. In the hospital service in northern France, one hears often of this corps, and nothing but what is good.

May I say, however, that Mr. Muirhead is mistaken in saying that the American Volunteer Ambulance Corps is the only American organization that has succeeded in reaching the front? The fact is that fleets of ambulances from the American Ambulance at Neuilly have not only reached the front, but, like those of the Volunteer Corps, have remained there for long periods of active service. Thus the Dunkirk section of the American Ambulance was for a busy month stationed at Elverdinghe (to name one station out of many)—which is perhaps as near the front as ambulances have a right to be; and these cars, too, served a field ambulance which was constantly under fire, and they, too, ran down to the *postes de secours* by the trenches every night.

I should dislike very much to seem to detract in the smallest degree from the deserved honors of the Volunteer Ambulance Corps. But I feel that the men and women whose generosity supports the American Ambulance are entitled to know that their cars, too, are doing their duty.

HENRY SYDNOR HARRISON.

Charleston, W. Va., December 20.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read with interest, profit, and entire approval Mr. More's article on "Children's Books." As a teacher of rhetoric, and as a student of self-expression and literature, I found myself applauding all of Mr. More's commendations and condemnations. The common-sense and sound principles in every line are refreshing in this day of demand that the child receive only the life and speech that will be real to him because they are so familiar. As pointed out by Mr. More, have we not in our enthusiasm for this kind of realism become fictitious? And have we not in this fiction reached something wholly unworthy and undesirable? In the light of such an achievement, Mr. More's statements are most significant. Our only disappointment comes when we discover that he has not given us more on the positive side of the question. The list of books for children is not so meagre, surely, as Mr. More has left it. We are anxious for more of such good doctrine from the same pen.

The matter of books for children presents many phases. There are the motives for reading fiction, which Bliss Perry has treated so admirably in his "Theory of Prose Fiction." With these motives we must reckon before the child is very old. There is also the matter of the vicarious existence and experiences offered in fiction. How much of morals and manners we acquire in this way we can never guess. For this reason, the satisfying and creating of desires, and the proper guidance of speech and actions, and formation of ideals, must not be overlooked in the selection of reading. Then there is that most important feature, the matter of choosing works that stimulate the imagination. Here we so often run afoul of the will of parents and the opinions of the prude. They confuse imagination and its products with untruthfulness, and accuse fiction of all the crimes that many just now are wont to lay at the door of the moving picture. They do this, not knowing that the imagination is a most valuable asset; that the imagination implies the ability to go outside the narrow sphere of one's own personal affairs and take on the conditions of others; that through the stimulation of the imagination by means of wide reading we become more critical of ourselves and more tolerant of others; and that the greatest thinkers of all ages have, when they found accurate knowledge inadequate for the solution of their problems, drawn upon the imagination for the accomplishment of those great things left for us by them. And finally, there are for consideration two other matters: that of the language of the author and of his characters, and that of the kind of characters and acts to be put before the reader. On one or two of these points I should like to say a word.

On the matter of the language of the characters, the actions of the characters, the motives for reading fiction, and the value of works of literature that stimulate the imagination, Mr. More, Professor Perry, and Mr. Santyana have left nothing to be said. So here I wish to attack the question of the characters and their acts, and to make further inquiries concerning suitable books for children.

There is in the make-up of most normal, active boys, for instance, the thirst for adventure. In some it may be only the suggested outlet for the surgings of a restless nature craving activity. In others it is likely to be a love for the adventurous, the dangerous, and the heroic, and a loathing for the monotony of perfect peace and security and the every-day round of usual events. Now, books of the Jesse James type do not incite the thirst for adventure. They only show the boy a method of satisfying the thirst. What we need, then, is direction and a proper kind of satisfaction. Books of the right kind will do one or all of three things for the boy. They will satisfy vicariously, and without harmful results, the boy's desire for adventure; will, to my notion, bring a satisfaction or an experience that will stay the deed rather than incite it. Next, these books will change the boy's ideals and temper his deeds and speech. And finally, they will provide most profitable employment and entertainment that will occupy the time that otherwise might be employed in pursuits almost criminal. Now, I agree that this reading must be carefully selected. So here arises the question as to the choice of books.

May I then here point out some books and their virtues? First, there are the simple adventures of fairy stories. Ambitions and far-fetched day dreams, it is true, they may foster. But who would deny the harmless pleasure, and even benefit, of these? And from fairy stories will come no harmful imitations, no suggested programme of bad deeds. A boy may indulge in all the day dreams he pleases; but he cannot rise to the imitation of supernatural beings. His acts are barred by the one word "if." Next would come stories of animals. Of these we have a goodly quantity. Here the youth is predisposed to nature study and the outdoor things in general. Following these, the most suitable would be history primers, Bible stories, etc. But soon the boy outgrows these, and we must turn to other things. Then do I think it is necessary to take up some of the old stand-bys—books that have "stuff and art enough to make them interesting to the adult." I point first to "Robinson Crusoe." I need not comment much or long on this perennial work. What accusations can be brought against the wholesomeness of the commendable and enviable plan of this castaway's life as he works out the problem of his own existence? The language of the author, as well as the language and deeds of the character in the book, is above reproach. The book belongs in that small group which one

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never tires of reading. Next, let us turn to "Pilgrim's Progress." Here, if we conceal from the child the selfishness of the Pilgrim, who forsook wife and children to save his own skin a scorching, we have a story entirely commendable. In it are the romance and adventure of ordinary fiction, the realistic touch of actual experience, and the portrayal of real character in spite of the allegory of personification. And finally, I come to something nearer home and reality. I refer to Cooper's "Leather Stocking Tales." Here we have wholesome stories full of stirring action and description. The past of our country lives before our eyes. To the forest, the Indian, the prairie, the trapper, life is given. The story seizes and holds the imagination of the reader; if it does this, it is art. And behind it all is the author, strong, benevolent, sincere, and just. A most wholesome pleasure results from a contact with him, his characters, and his scenes. These stories satisfy and give the experience of adventure craved by the boy. But above this in importance is another result. What must be the effect on the boy who follows Natty Bumpo from his early life to his noble death? The question is not hard to answer. Here is a hero whose every action is tempered with justice and moderation; a man who loathes to take human life or to commit a single dishonorable act; a man who risks all that a woman's honor may not be violated; a man who scorns to betray, and who never hesitates to do his duty to his fellow men, no matter what the sacrifice may be. How can any boy help coming out of such reading satisfied, subdued, and bettered? No deeds of a wrong kind can result. The setting has passed. And I might add, almost parenthetically, that those who object to having love stories of the falsely sentimental kind come into the hands of children will find Cooper to their liking. The love affairs in his books are the tamest on record. To these books may be added many of the same sort.

Last, I must say that I cannot leave the subject without referring to such noble productions as Hale's "Man Without a Country." Words of comment belittle the noble sentiments, the gentle persuasion, the amiable style, and the poise and dignity of the author as revealed by this little story. Patriotism has no stronger guardian; its equal is to be found only in such tales as the Bible stories of David and Jonathan and Ruth and Naomi. H. L. SENSEMANN.

Ann Arbor, Mich., December 6.

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Foster, of Reed College, in his article on "Intercollegiate Athletics" in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, has brought to an issue a subject of vital importance to the American college. It is not a mere statement of opinion, it is an arraignment to the charges of which sooner or later the system of intercollegiate athletics must satisfactorily answer before it can fully justify its further right to exist as an element in American college life.

President Foster has spoken clearly and forcibly what many a college president has long felt, but not dared to express. The time has come when serious action should be considered. Athletics has long since outgrown the narrow confines of the college curriculum, and has become a power over which faculties no longer actually rule, but exercise simply a kind of control to a greater or less extent, as the case may be. That control which the faculty does manage to exercise is looked upon by the students, and I am sorry to say by a considerable body of alumni also, largely as an unjust interference with their rights.

When we consider the true meaning of an American college and the important place which athletics should have in its curriculum, we cannot help but regard the interference as being all on the other side. As President Foster has pointed out, intercollegiate athletics "jeopardizes the main function of athletics." It emphasizes the training of a few at the expense of the many; and this training is expended on the very ones who need it the least. This is a direct perversion of the part athletics should play in a college course. Every student should receive the benefit of the coach's training. Those shivering individuals on the side lines should be on the field instead of puffing away at their cigarettes. There should be as many teams as there are students to form them. The real business of college athletics is to further the physical development and maintain a normal state of health in *every* individual connected with the institution. Intramural games furnish real recreation, truly exciting, stimulating fun, but cause no such nerve-straining experiences as those which come from watching one's team defeat or lose to another college team. When for two or three days or even a week before and perhaps the same length of time after a "big game" students are good for very little so far as work in the classroom is concerned, truly such a form of athletics is receiving undue emphasis. Indeed, it is not only jeopardizing the main purpose of athletics, but also that of the college, as an institution of learning.

The argument that intercollegiate athletics is necessary as an advertising agency for the institution is not justified. The expense of this kind of advertising is out of all proportion to the returns. No business man would consider such unprofitable advertising for a moment.

Equally unsupportable is the argument that this highly specialized form of athletics is necessary in order to create and sustain that intangible thing called "college spirit," which might mean anything, from the action of a freshman in taking off his cap to a senior to the action of a sophomore in never refusing to bet on his own team no matter what the odds may be, or even to a drunken carousal after a "big game." Whatever it may be, the unity which is brought about by specialized athletics is not the kind of unity which best solidifies and promotes the true spirit of college life.

I do not wish to hold up intercollegiate athletics as some terrible evil which has nothing good in it. My contention is that intercollegiate athletics has grown to such an extent that it has raised college athletics to an importance altogether out of proportion to its value as an aid in college work. It is not the business of a college to train specialized athletes, although one would think so from the present status of affairs. As President Foster rightly puts it, we want *"athletics for education, not for business."* The business side of college athletics, and all the hypocrisy usually concomitant with it, is something which should be entirely foreign to the predominating atmosphere of any American college. R. A. SIGSBEE.

Princeton, N. J., November 11.

MADAME CAMMAERTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I venture to suggest that Professor Firkins has scarcely done justice to Madame Cammaerts in his review of "Belgian Poems," printed in your issue of December 2? Surely her versions of her husband's work are not all equally happy, but possibly one may take exception to some of Professor Firkins's criticism. His cleverness seems to have got away with him. Exactness and rhythm have been immolated to each other, he says, and cites: "Ma lyre tinte d'une corde, mon vers cloche d'un pied," translated thus: "My harp is weak and faintly sings." Truly the rhythm of the original is not kept, but does the sense come off so badly? And did not Professor Firkins forget to glance at the original when he remarks: "She [Mme. C.] adds, with involuntary point, 'My verse is uninspired'"? The next line in the French reads: "Et je n'ai guère d'inspiration." For my part, I believe Du Bellay's advice was good when he counselled not to translate the poets, but since, in this year of enlightenment, translated they must be to get any hearing out of their own country, I submit that Madame Cammaerts deserves a warmer welcome than the *Nation* has extended to her.

BENJ. M. WOODBRIDGE.

Austin, Tex., December 6.

THE MILKY WAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of Wycherley's quatrain,

> Your Beauty's Light is evident,
> Though where or how, we cannot say:
> Thus unseen stars i' th' Element
> United, make the Milky Way,

Professor Hart asks, in the *Nation* of November 4, "Would a poet of the early Stuarts, 1620-1650, have known that the Milky Way is composed of single stars and assumed that the knowledge was current with his readers?"

The opinion that the Milky Way is composed of single stars goes back to Democritus (see Pauly-Wissowa, under Γαλαξίας). Its first sponsor in modern Europe is, I believe, Albertus Magnus, who devotes to the Galaxy the whole second Tractate of the "Liber primus meteororum," reproving several erroneous theories and expounding his own at length. His definition is: "Nihil aliud autem est galaxia, nisi multæ stellæ parvæ quasi contiguæ in illo loco orbis."

From Albertus Magnus Dante derives his interesting discussion of the Galaxy in the "Convivio," II. 15. And Dante like Wycherley finds a comparison:

"Wherefore, inasmuch as the Milky Way is an effect of those stars which we cannot see save in so far as we apprehend them by their effect, and metaphysics treats of the primal existences, which in like manner we may not apprehend save by their effects, it is manifest that the Starry Heaven hath great similitude to Metaphysics."

ERNEST H. WILKINS.

University of Chicago, November 19.

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Literature

GEN. CHAMBERLAIN'S NARRATIVE OF THE POTOMAC.

The Passing of the Armies: An Account of the Final Campaign of the Army of the Potomac, Based upon Personal Reminiscences of the Fifth Army Corps. By Joshua Laurence Chamberlain, Brevet Major-General, U. S. Volunteers. With maps and portraits and a biographical note by George Haven Putnam. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50 net.

Gen. Chamberlain graduated at Bowdoin College in 1852, studied theology and church history in the Latin, German, Hebrew, Syriac, and Arabic languages at the Bangor Theological Seminary, and served as Supervisor of Schools in Brewer, Maine, his native town. In 1856 he was appointed instructor at Bowdoin in natural and revealed religion. For four years he was professor of rhetoric and oratory at the same college, and in 1861 was elected professor of modern languages. In August, 1862, he became lieutenant-colonel of the Twentieth Regiment of Maine Volunteers, and in May, 1863, received his commission as colonel. He received the Congressional medal of honor for conspicuous service in the defence of Little Round Top at Gettysburg; in the campaigns of 1864 and 1865 he commanded a brigade at Spottsylvania and Petersburg, and when Lee stacked arms at Appomattox Gen. Chamberlain was placed in command of the receiving troops, signalizing the event by an act of courtesy celebrated in the annals of the war.

He himself in his own narrative, Mr. Putnam, who contributes the biographical note, and the publishers in their advertisement all declare that he was promoted to the rank of general on the field of battle at Petersburg by Lieut.-Gen. Grant. It is interesting to turn from the narrative to the war records to follow the steps which led to Gen. Chamberlain's promotion. On the 17th and 18th of June, 1864, Gen. Grant was at City Point. Gen. Meade was in command of the Army of the Potomac in front of Petersburg. The telegraph wires were out of order on both days, interrupting communication between Grant and Meade. On the evening of June 19 Gen. Warren, commanding the Fifth Corps, reported to Meade that Col. Chamberlain was mortally wounded in the assaults of the previous day, the ball having passed through the pelvis and bladder. Warren adds that Chamberlain had been previously recommended for promotion, that on the day before he had led his brigade under a most destructive fire, and that the wounded officer now expressed the wish that he might receive the recognition of his service by promotion before he died, for the gratification of his family and friends. Warren begs that the request be granted, if possible. On the same day Meade forwarded this telegram to Grant, with the earnest recommendation that Col. Chamberlain's request be granted. On June 20, the second day after Chamberlain's wounding, Grant at City Point, in pursuance of authority of the Secretary of War, in special orders No. 39, mostly devoted to the distribution of the army mail, appointed Col. Chamberlain brigadier-general of United States Volunteers, subject to the approval of the President. Mr. Putnam's suggestion that possibly Chamberlain's promotion "by Gen. Grant on the field of battle" was the only instance of the kind during the war recalls a number of promotions under similar circumstances.

After the war Gen. Chamberlain was Governor of Maine, and in 1876 he became president of Bowdoin College. He died in 1914. Ability, training, and experience made him a thoughtful participant in the campaign of 1865, which is the theme of his narrative. Its chief historical and military value lies in its exposition of the extraordinary and erratic handling of the armies confronting Lee, and of their strange composition. Long ago other writers, among them Gen. Humphreys and Col. Carswell McClellan, presented evidence which, in a way more readily understood by the general reader, the present volume confirms.

Here are some of Gen. Chamberlain's comments on the tactics indulged in:

> We could not understand why the Army of the Potomac was so broken up and buffeted about. . . . We were not readily reconciled to measures which contradicted commonsense, and, as we thought, military economics. . . . Why was the Army of the James marched a long, hard jaunt from the right of the Petersburg lines, and put in between the Sixth and Second Corps of the Army of the Potomac? . . . Why was the Fifth Corps, in the midst of a success on Lee's right, suddenly withdrawn, all its advantages abandoned, and sent to support Sheridan's cavalry, which was not at any strategic front, instead of having the cavalry support the infantry as the main object of the campaign required? Why did Grant leave the front of Meade, where the principal negotiations with Lee had begun, and make the journey to Sheridan's front, where Ord, of the Army of the James, was in chief command, and there arrange for the surrender?

These and other pertinent queries were answered long ago by Col. Carswell McClellan, of Humphreys's staff, in his book, "Grant vs. The Record," and by other careful students of the history of the Civil War. They are answered now again in Chamberlain's narrative, sometimes by suggestion, often by direct statement. The answer belongs more to the domain of psychology than to that of military science. Of Gen. Grant's Memoirs Chamberlain says that more than once military movements in this campaign could not be recognized from Grant's description of them. There was a double motive at play. One was the capture of the remnants of Lee's broken army. The other was Sheridan's desire to gather in the laurels to himself, and Grant's desire to serve Sheridan. Of Sheridan, Gen. Chamberlain expressed the doubt whether he had the ability to command in a campaign or great battle, a doubt which has grown with an increasing number of students of the Civil War, for all the impression made on persons immediately about him by his physical activity, and in spite of his, perhaps lessening, popular fame.

It is a curious fact that Chamberlain, though he discusses the Sheridan-Warren affair at length, and in the main justifies Warren, in common with all writers on the subject, with one exception, does not go back to the apparent starting point of Sheridan's hostility to Warren, which culminated in Warren's being relieved of the command of the Fifth Corps on the battlefield of Five Forks, after the battle had been won, and only a few days before Lee's surrender. On May 30, on the way from the North Anna to Cold Harbor, near Bethesda Church, Sheridan had been ordered to cover Warren's flank. From early morning until late in the day Warren sent repeated messages to Meade that Sheridan, instead of picketing the road on Warren's left, was on a road to the rear. He said that Sheridan had entirely failed to cover his left, and did not coöperate in any way. Late in the afternoon the Confederates were around Warren's left flank. Humphreys, Meade's chief of staff, had informed Warren that the orders to Sheridan called for picketing the roads as Warren desired. Sheridan's petulant replies to Humphreys's communication called forth from the able chief of staff a calm and clear statement of what the cavalry commander was expected to do. The latter contended that he had covered Warren's left all day, but the reports and positions of his subordinates plainly show that this was not the case. Here, apparently, was the beginning of Sheridan's hostility to Warren.

Before the spring of 1865 Sheridan had become an independent commander, subject only to Grant's orders, unless juxtaposition and priority of rank should place him under Meade or Ord. The erratic movements of the armies in the Appomattox campaign, as clearly followed and deservedly criticised by Gen. Chamberlain, are only to be accounted for by Grant's unfailing desire to serve Sheridan's personal interests. In the face of a strong foe such movements would have been fatal. Of Sheridan's movements, Chamberlain says the cavalry commander should have taken possession of Five Forks on March 29, 1865, when there was almost nothing to oppose him; that when ordered to secure that point on the morning of the 30th, he moved so slowly that he gave time for the Confederate cavalry not only to reach Five Forks, but to advance half-way to Dinwiddie Court House. With 13,000 cavalry, Sheridan had in his front only Fitz Hugh Lee's 1,800. And again by this timidity he was leaving the flank of Warren on his right exposed. In the meantime, while Sheridan was driven back far to the rear at Dinwiddie Court House, Warren had fought his way, with Lee on the spot personally directing the opposition, northward to the White Oak Road and near the right of the Confederate intrenchments. If Sheridan had

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come up, it is possible the campaign would have ended then and there. But as Sheridan had not come up, Grant told Meade to hold Warren back, which recalls Grant's halting of Hooker's pursuit after Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain.

Chamberlain suggests that when Grant sent word to Sheridan that all the forces would now act as one army, and Sheridan had hurried to Grant at night, the lieutenant-general had promised to take care of the cavalryman's fortunes by placing under him an infantry corps of the Army of the Potomac. As it turned out, Warren had to turn back and go to Sheridan's aid. Sheridan was driven "pell-mell into Dinwiddie," to quote Chamberlain's words. The confusion, loss of time, crossing of orders, blunders of many kinds, Chamberlain attributes to the presence of too many army commanders and the erratic breaking up of the Army of the Potomac, the responsibility for which inevitably falls upon Gen. Grant, while Warren proved to be the unfortunate victim. In his official report Grant said that Sheridan, in his defeat by a much smaller force than his own, had displayed "great generalship." Chamberlain says that such a definition of generalship would let many a modest colonel into the temple of fame. He also says that, instead of what actually occurred, the best thing to have done would have been to follow Meade's suggestion and attack the Confederate rear towards Dinwiddie with the whole of the Fifth Corps.

Chamberlain's account of the battle of Five Forks, where, in spite of the success of the Union forces, the confusion of contending elements set in motion long before culminated, is a piece of masterly analysis. Previous to the battle there had been no proper reconnaissance. At the Warren inquiry, Sheridan's engineer officer testified that he did not know there was a "return" to the Confederate earthworks on the White Oak road. The direction of the Union forces was so faulty that they reached the road far to the east of the angle where the "return" was thrown back. Crawford, one of Warren's division commanders, of whose military ability Chamberlain had a poor opinion, influenced, perhaps, somewhat by differences between Chamberlain and Crawford's command at Gettysburg, marched far to the north in pursuit of a foe which lay to the west. Warren was busy correcting Crawford's false movement, and Sheridan, jumping at conclusions unwarranted, relieved Warren from command. But before the battle Griffen, who succeeded to the command of the Fifth Corps, hinted to Chamberlain that something would happen to Warren.

Gen. Chamberlain characterizes as "absurd" the account given in Grant's Memoirs of a visit paid by Grant and Sheridan to Meade at midnight of April 5, when Grant says he explained to Meade that he did not want to follow the enemy, but to get ahead of him, and that Meade's orders would allow him to escape. It is unbelievable, says Chamberlain, that an officer of Meade's position, experience, and responsibility could have listened patiently to such an imputation of ignorance and stupidity, and he adds that it is absurd to imagine that Meade ever intended to move to the right towards Petersburg. Furthermore, he points out, as other writers have done before, that Grant's orders placed the troops in the rear of Lee's army and kept them there until Appomattox Court House was reached. Of Meade's order on the 5th, Chamberlain says it is almost "the sublime utterance of a gentleman and a patriot—an unselfish and magnanimous man. To my mind, it seems like the last words of an Algernon Sidney or a Montrose." Readers of Sir Walter Scott's introduction to "The Legend of Montrose" will remember that the great Montrose had his Sheridan, to whom the people of Scotland gave their easily-won plaudits.

Told with spirit and skill, its pages full of human interest, lightened with personal sketches and pertinent anecdotes, Gen. Chamberlain's narrative is an important contribution to American history, one which can hardly fail to modify in some respects mistaken popular judgments. In the state of military preparedness, of which we are beginning to think, this volume may help to maintain a scientific application of military principles in the conduct of armies, for the prevention of the dangerous crudities manifested in the Appomattox campaign.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Fatal Garland. By Mrs. Ghosal (Srimati Svarna Kumari Devi). New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is hardly the Western world's idea of a novel. It is more like a "prose poem" on a legendary theme. The boy prince of Dinajpur, playing with the little maidens of his father's court, chooses the queenliest one and crowns her with a garland of flowers that her timider playmate has woven. When they grow up, the Rajkumar marries the gentler maiden, but Shakti, the chosen of his childhood, reappears, beautiful and imperious, to claim his love. Unlike the Hindu women of her class, Shakti walks abroad unafraid, for she has courage beyond other women, and she is not ashamed to plead the great love which serves her for modesty. So it happens that she is seen and desired by the young Mohammedan ruler of Bengal, the Rajkumar's overlord. While her lover hesitates between the happiness of his childlike wife and his deeper passion for Shakti, she despairs, and consenting to become the Sultan's wife, enters his household. After she has thus lost caste, the Rajkumar's scruples are reinforced by religious reasons, and Shakti has no alternative but to fulfil her promise. Years afterward the Hindu prince is imprisoned for sheltering an enemy of the Sultan, and the order is given for his execution. Shakti, as the Sultan's favorite wife, is able to contrive his escape by taking his place in the dungeon, and dies in his stead.

Those who look for a revelation of purely Asiatic thought will be somewhat disappointed. The woman whose nature transcends the conventions of her day and generation (a theme as new as feminism), the revolt of the individual heart against inexorable social laws (a theme as old as romance itself), the childhood episode out of which grows a tragic fate—all these are familiar in our own literature. What seems genuinely exotic is the dainty lyricism of certain descriptive passages, and the superlative delicacy and reticence of the style. Whatever has been vigorously conceived is quaintly subdued by this mode of expression, like some wild tale of tragic passion grown decorous in tapestry.

Sunlight Patch. By Credo Harris. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Some day, we trust, the tragedy of our Southern mountains will be written worthily. It waits to be done; but meanwhile the purveyors of farce and the cheerful betterment writers have marked the region for their own. How often in their pages have we encountered an assemblage like this: The mountain lad avid for book-larnin', the erstwhile mountain-girl now teaching country school, the boyish civil engineer from the North, the old-fashioned Kentucky colonel and his old-time darky servant. Though surely never before was the mint julep so heavily relied upon as a source of mirth, never before was the spiritual regeneration of so many characters carried to so high a degree in one brief volume. As for incorrigibles, they are either killed off or banished from the neighborhood. No one on whom the rays emanating from Sunlight Patch have shone in vain, is permitted to remain till the end of the book. We incline to share the author's respect for Sunlight Patch, if not as a source of irresistible ethical influence, still as his one inspired conception. It is there that the mountain boy's blind sister lives, and there the mountain folk come from twenty miles around to hear her read out of the "blind" books she has brought back from the settlement school, "just like they were coming to a singin', till the clarin'd be plumb full." The suggested scene mirrors truly so much that is hopeful and so much that is distressing in the life of these people to-day.

The Valley Road. By Mary Hallock Foote. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

In her preface Mrs. Foote disclaims the expectation of reaching other readers than "the old friends who read her books when she and they were young," and apologizes for her "belated" story on the ground that it was written before the present war began. "It has seemed strange enough to be going on with mere mechanical revision—seated, as it were, with one's knitting at the spectacle of the world's agony since August of last year." The sentence expresses what has been the mood of how many sensitive spirits? Yet the knitting must go on—perhaps, indeed, it is sane and quiet labor which the world in its agony most

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needs. Mrs. Foote's work has always been refreshing for its clearness of mental and moral atmosphere. Now, when our younger story-tellers are so generally fumbling with the latest sex-and-humanity materials, the properties and bits of business exacted by newest fashion, a tale like "The Valley Road" is a rock in the desert. Its wholesomeness, its quietude, its literary flavor, are refreshing.

There is no marked novelty of plot or setting. The chief scene is a California property which has been bought by an Eastern syndicate after being ruined for mining purposes by legislation in favor of neighboring farmers. An Eastern engineer, Scarth, has been sent out to make what he can of it. But it is a difficult problem, and Scarth, after many years' effort, leaves it unsolved. His son takes it up, but to him also it proves a poser. Tom, however, as well as his sister, Engracia, is to find a happier career, and this story shows them making their way in that direction. It is graciously told. Mrs. Foote possessed herself of the thing called style at a time when it was rather highly valued. That was before the highest ambition of the "literary aspirant" (as the phrase went) was to "put across" his product by means of visible and audible "punch." If this story is in any serious sense "belated," it is so in its delicate force, its breeding, its unlabored care for the right word —qualities not without honor even in the barbaric America of a generation ago.

The Carnival of Florence. By Marjorie Bowen. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

To readers who have read with complaisance "The Viper of Milan" and other swashbuckling romances by this writer, the present volume may be recommended as worthy of its predecessors. Hectic history plus heart interest can achieve no more. The leading historical figure is Savonarola, not the Savonarola of "Romola," but a wild, rapacious fanatic, always on the verge of hysteria. Next comes the Magnifico, Piero dei Medici, out of whom this writer builds an absurd puppet of lust and feebleness. The heroine is Aprilis, daughter of a Florentine money-lender, who has many narrow escapes from the seductions of Piero, and lives happy ever after with her patrician husband. As for style, the book is of the sort in which a person may die of "a mysterious disease which was feared might be the plague," and in which a Savonarola can exclaim: "I am he, O most Christian King, who didst foretell that thou wert appointed," etc.

The Measure of a Man. By Amelia E. Barr. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a far better story than its immediate predecessor, "The Winning of Lucia"—perhaps because it is more frankly and happily a tract. It was written, says its venerable author, "to honor and magnify the sweetness and dignity of the condition of Motherhood, and of those womanly virtues and graces which make the Home the cornerstone of the Nation." It is in general a plea for the old-fashioned woman, and in particular an attack upon the growing numbers of married women who deliberately avoid or prevent the bearing of children. As before, Mrs. Barr, though she has lived in America for more than half a century, takes for her scene the England of her girlhood. The place is Yorkshire, the time the sixties. The chief persons belong to those types which have grown so familiar to American readers of British fiction. The strong young man of property, the weak young man of genius, the foolish lord, the proud and worldly maiden, the dowager, and so on; all hail to them once more! The maiden is the real centre of the action—how she becomes the wife of the strong young man, how she avoids motherhood, how she is punished, and at last becomes the delighted mother of seven—this is the substance of the story. We do not see where the title comes in. "The Making of a Mother" might have really fitted.

MEDIÆVAL SPANISH ALLEGORY.

Harvard Studies in Comparative Literature. Vol. IV: Mediæval Spanish Allegory. By Chandler Rathfon Post. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. $2.50 net.

When Mrs. Malaprop referred to "an allegory on the banks of the Nile," her ideas of what constituted an allegory were only a little more confused than those of most writers who attempt to deal with the subject to-day. It is gratifying, then, to feel that this baffling literary type, at least in a portion of its history, has at last received competent treatment. Hard as it may be for us, in the midst of these stirring times, to turn our minds back to a subject which seems as remote as "Mediæval Spanish Allegory," we must needs give to this book of Professor Post's the importance that attaches to a pioneer in a new field. For in spite of the impulse lent in late years by Brunetière and others to the study of the "évolution des genres," this is really the first book to trace in any country the evolution of that peculiar form of literature which Lowell used laughingly to refer to as "allegory or worse."

Besides giving us for the first time a survey of the special field of Spanish allegory, this new book succeeds also in quite revolutionizing our ideas of the relation of Spanish literature in general to French and to Italian. Hitherto, scholars have almost invariably spoken of Spanish literature down to the time of "Don Quixote" as chiefly under the influence of Italy. Wherever they found allegory, for example, they would exclaim at once, "imitation of Dante." But now comes Professor Post to show that this allegorical strain was due not so much to Italian influence as to the vast reservoir of French allegory which was the common source for the allegory of Italy and Spain alike. If Italian imitation there is in Spain, it comes rather from the later Renaissance as a subsidiary influence. This is shown not merely in the case of allegory, but also in other forms of literature, and even in architecture, sculpture, and painting. So that this latest contribution to the Harvard Studies in Comparative Literature becomes of importance to all who are interested in the larger aspects of the comparative study of the three chief Romance literatures.

In the section of his book entitled The Evolution of Mediæval Spanish Allegory, Professor Post attempts the very difficult task of tracing the gradual growth of allegory in Spain through a period covering some twelve centuries. He declares "the tendency to allegorize is as deep-rooted in the Iberian peninsula as in any other district of Europe." The earliest attempts at Christian allegory are to be found in that mystical poet of the fourth century, Prudentius, the Spanish contemporary of Saint Augustine. Throughout the Middle Ages, we see in the Spanish peninsula, as well as in the rest of Europe, examples of those curious visions of the other world. Thus in the seventh century the Spaniard Paulus Emeritanus gives an account of the vision of a young acolyte who is borne up to the garden of paradise. Among other such visions, Saint Valerius relates one of a monk who images himself plunged into the cavern of hell, dropping from ledge to ledge towards the centre where Satan sits enchained.

In the thirteenth century the tradition is followed by the earliest of Spanish writers in the vernacular, Berceo. In his "Vida de Santa Oria," for example, he tells us how the maiden Oria was borne up in a vision to heaven, where she saw a throne prepared for her. Such journeys to the other world suggest Dante, but as Berceo died at the very time of Dante's birth, his visions, as well as the mediæval Latin ones, are an indication that no influence of the "Divine Comedy" from Italy is necessary to account for such visions on Spanish soil.

By the fourteenth century, various allegorical personifications have gradually grown up within the setting of these visions. In his journey to Hell and to Heaven, the visionary sees, on the one hand, the Seven Deadly Sins, and, on the other hand, the Seven Virtues—which those who are not fond of this sort of allegory may be tempted to entitle similarly the Seven *Deadly* Virtues. In another vision, it is the figures of the Seven Liberal Arts that appear. Elsewhere it is Love that is personified, as in the famous "Libro de Buen Amor" of Juan Ruiz, that extraordinary Archpriest of Hita, who in some of the satirical touches of his allegory shows himself a Spanish counterpart of Chaucer. Thus within the framework of the mediæval visions that were at first exclusively religious, secular allegory gradually found its way. Curiously enough, Professor Post speaks as though allegory had only later assumed the vision form. He says (p. 7): "As by constant manipulation allegorical composition acquired greater artistic excellence, the custom became more general of adorning it with a visionary

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framework." As a matter of fact, just the opposite seems to have been the case. It was within the visionary framework that these allegories grew up, and it was only later, when the setting which had been essential to the earlier vision was no longer needed, that the device of the vision was discarded. In the light of his own evidence Professor Post's statements on this particular stage of the evolution of allegory seem to need some modification.

In the fifteenth century, with the writers of the court of Juan II, we reach the heyday of Spanish allegory. It is in the allegories of this period that previous critics have emphasized, perhaps over-emphasized, the Italian influence. Imperial was the son of an Italian, and in him and in the more illustrious Marquis of Santillana, they have pointed to many "Dantesque imitations." Professor Post, in his desire to minimize the pretended Italian influence, argues that these are not imitations of Dante, but rather of Dante's precursors in Spain, such as Berceo. But this seems hardly probable. No less an authority than Fitzmaurice-Kelly, in his "History of Spanish Literature" (p. 53), has said: "The chances are that Berceo and his writings had passed out of remembrance within two hundred years of his death, and he was evidently unknown to Santillana in the fifteenth century." Now, Dante, on the other hand, seems to have been well known both to Santillana and to the other later writers of visions. Indeed, in three of the visions—the "Decir de las Siete Virtudes" of Imperial, the "Triunfo del Marquez" of Diego de Burgos, and the Panegyric on the death of Alonso Carillo by Diego Guillen de Avila—it is Dante himself who plays the rôle of the guide that Virgil had played in the Divine Comedy. Dante has evidently been a guide to them in more senses than one, and it can hardly be denied that these Spanish writers of the fifteenth century show at least as much familiarity with the "Divine Comedy" as they do with the mediæval visions in their own earlier literature. When Professor Post, after insisting that the native Spanish tradition is sufficient in itself, brings forward the apparently contradictory thesis that it is the French rather than the Italian influence which is most important, it becomes clear that he is trying to prove too much.

From the rich variety of Spanish allegories of the fifteenth century there are two types that seem to stand out as peculiarly characteristic both of the period and of Spain, and that demand particular attention here. One of these, which describes the coronation of some famous man by allegorical figures, is usually designated by the Spanish title "Coronación." The other, which describes the sufferings of famous lovers in a sort of allegorical hell, we may refer to as the "Infierno de los Enamorados." Both these types, characteristic as they are of the early Renaissance, still show traces of the mediæval visions of Heaven and Hell from which they developed. For in the "Coronación" the author imagines himself as borne up in a vision to Heaven, where he beholds the rewards of fame; while in the "Infierno de los Enamorados," on the contrary, he imagines himself as conducted to Hell, where he beholds the tortures of love.

The "Coronación," according to Professor Post, may have been suggested by mediæval Spanish poems on the Coronation of the Virgin, or by visions in which saints receive crowns. Santillana himself had written a poem in which he imagined himself in a vision lifted to Heaven and beholding there amid the nine orders of angels the canonization of a Dominican and a Franciscan saint. As Santillana developed this theme, however, it is not the glorification of a saint that he sees in his vision, but that of a poet. In his "Coronación de mossen Jordí," for example, he describes the famous Catalan poet, Jordí de Sant Jordí, as crowned by the goddess Venus at the request of the shades of Homer, Virgil, and Lucan. In another poem, Santillana in a vision finds his illustrious precursor, the poet Villena, mourned by the nine muses on the top of Parnassus. When we compare such Coronacións with the earlier religious visions from which they sprang we cannot help being struck by the transition from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance that has already taken place. Instead of the Christian machinery of Hell, Purgatory, and Heaven, we find the appearance of pagan mythology. The canonization of a saint has given place to the coronation of the poet. The nine orders of angels have yielded to the nine muses. Paradise has been replaced by Parnassus.

When Santillana lavished in this way praises upon the poets who had died before him, one cannot help feeling that he may not have been without the hope that some similar tribute might be paid to him. If so, he was not destined to be disappointed; for after his death no less than three Coronacións were written in his honor—one by his nephew, Gomez Manrique; one by his secretary, Diego de Burgos, and one by Juan de Mena, "the great Cordoban poet," as Cervantes calls him, whose panegyric on Santillana is perhaps the highest achievement of this type of allegory.

The glorification of the poet is a characteristic of the end of the Middle Ages throughout Europe. The coronation of the successful poet at the "Puys" in France, the coronation of Petrarch with laurel on the Capitol at Rome, are but counterparts of the Spanish allegory of crowning the poet. The same desire of the poet for fame which is illustrated in Italy by Petrarch's "Triumph of Fame" and in England by Chaucer's "House of Fame" was in Spain represented by the "Coronación."

The "Infierno de los Enamorados," or, as Professor Post seems to prefer to call it, the "Erotic Hell," was the second type of allegory that particularly flourished in fifteenth-century Spain. As with the "Coronación," here again it is the illustrious Marquis de Santillana who has established this new type of allegory. In his "Infierno de los Enamorados" Santillana imagines in his vision that he is rescued from a wild beast by Hippolytus and led through a dark valley to a gloomy castle where he sees the tortures of unhappy lovers.

Just as the "Coronación" celebrated the famous poets, so this second form gave occasion to celebrate the famous lovers. The germ of both ideas may be found already in Dante, in the first two circles of his "Inferno." For in Limbo he encounters the illustrious poets in a meadow of fresh verdure, and in the second circle the celebrated lovers, including Francesca and Paolo, blown about by the gusts of the "bufera infernale." But scenes which had been in Dante but passing episodes in the whole tremendous scheme of punishment were developed by Petrarch and Boccaccio into elaborate compositions in themselves. As Petrarch's "Triumph of Fame" offers an analogy to the "Coronación," so his "Triumph of Love," where the lovers are cast into prison, furnishes an analogy to the "Infierno de los Enamorados." Similar counterparts of the two types might be found in Boccaccio's "Amorosa Visione" and in his "Corbaccio" or "Laberinto d'Amore."

In Spain, the peculiar forms that these two types of allegory took—the glorification of the poet and the glorification of the lover—gave expression to that passion for glory and that pride which characterized the Spanish Hidalgo in the days before Cervantes had "smiled Spain's chivalry away." There was never a time that the Spaniard had more reason for this pride than in the fifteenth century. Towards the end of that century the same memorable year that saw the united Spaniards bring their seven-hundred-year struggle against the Moor to an end with the conquest of Granada saw also the beginnings of Spain's long glories across the sea with the conquest of the new world by Columbus. In that same year, too, a Spaniard became Pope, and it was not many years later that another Spaniard was to become Emperor. It was in such proud days as these, when Spanish galleons were first beginning to bring back gold out of a western empire upon which the sun never set, that Spanish allegory, with its passions for personal fame, flourished in all its richness.

To-day, when the last vestiges of that western empire have been torn away from Spain, it is interesting to turn back once more to her former glory as it is reflected in the literature which Professor Post's new book has revealed to us. In spite of some serious defects in arrangement and some hasty conclusions, it gives us the best survey we have of the evolution of Spanish allegory, and at the same time a brilliant study of the relations of that literature to French and Italian. It should be a matter of no small pride to America that Americans have done so much for the study of Spanish literature. The first satisfactory History of Spanish Literature was that given by George Ticknor, which, unlike any other literary history, still holds its place to-day, some sixty-six years after it was written. If, in the excitement of the Spanish

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War, some of us may for the moment have lost sight of the greatness of the earlier Spanish culture, it is some recompense to see since then the growth in America of the Hispanic Museum and the production of such scholarly works as Professor Rennert's "Life of Lope de Vega," and now this volume on "Mediæval Spanish Allegory" by Professor Post.

AN IMPRESSIONIST IN BELGIUM.

The Spell of Belgium. By Isabel Anderson. Boston: The Page Co. $2.50 net.

Following the volume on "The Spell of Flanders" is this companion in the series, on Belgium—chiefly as seen from a motor-car. The wife of our American Minister, Hon. Larz Anderson, had been in Belgium but a few months of 1911-12, when her husband's appointment as Ambassador to Japan compelled both to leave the country for the Far East. Her present work is in succession to that from her pen on "The Spell of Japan." So far as they present her experiences and impressions in Belgium, her chapters are chiefly reminiscent of her life in Brussels, with motor-car visits to various places both in the Walloon highlands and on the Flemish plain. One may look in vain for evidences of any close acquaintance with the life of the Belgian people, though her view is ever that of kindly sympathy. In an overcrowded country, even before the desolations of war, the struggle for life seemed to be keener than ever, but of the charm and spell which this land of art and legend, of Van Eyck and Rubens, cast upon her, there can be no doubt. It is with a sympathetic pen, and in fascinating literary style, that Mrs. Anderson writes, whether she depicts the glories or catalogues the woes of a nation—so often crushed, yet so often resurgent.

Since the previous volume in the series covered Flanders or northern Belgium, inhabited chiefly by the Flemish, of Teutonic origin, who speak rather an old form of Dutch, one would naturally expect, in this work, to find much about the southern or Walloon half of the country and its inhabitants, who are of Gallic strain and who speak French. Should not this be the main object of the author's thought and description? No one can really understand the Belgian people who does not clearly discriminate between the Walloons—at whose initiative nearly every one of the national movements has taken place—and the Flemings, who are the conservatives. The former furnish also a majority of the Socialists and the radical leaders, while the latter are, in the main, still unquestioning adherents of the Church and her traditions. Yet in this work we find very few discriminating references to the Walloons, or to the striking difference in the topography of the two sections, notwithstanding the fact that both ethnic and geographic conditions in Belgium have from the dawn of history conditioned and still influence the development of both country and people.

In the three opening chapters, devoted to legation and court life in Brussels the Magnificent, we have perhaps the best view yet afforded readers of English of the procedure of royalty at this rather democratic court. Then, hieing to days mediæval, the author gives us animated verbal pictures of the politics, industries, and civic life, the memories of which the Belgians cherish so tenaciously. Here democracy, based on industrialism and long antedating England's, first arose in northern Europe. Before its peaceful onslaught, feudalism gave way. From the first, Belgic civic life was strong. The oldest charter in Europe, given to the citizens of Grammont in 1068, which granted civic rights in an age of battle-axe law, ushered in the new day. After that a congeries of city republics grew up. From this root of charters and guaranteed rights of the people, despite all changes and conquests, Belgian liberty has ever drawn life and vigor. Even the so-called Protestant Reformation was largely the direct result of economic factors.

This development of municipal vigor bore fruit in America. Out of the Walloons' Land, or Southern Belgium, came the refugees from Spanish despotism, men, women, and children, the real settlers and initial home-makers, who first settled New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. Before the Revolution, all the first chartered cities, except Annapolis, Md., within the limits of the present United States, were of Netherlandish origin and mostly between Manhattan Island and the Delaware.

The historic spell does not seem to lie on the author, for neither the fact that our Middle region was Nova Belgica, nor that there are manifold points of contact between Belgic and American history, is noticed in her pages. Chapters on politics, industries, tapestries, paintings, and the modern literary situation delight us, but there is little evidence of her acquaintance with the people or the real social forces that explain the tenacity and repeated reassertion of Belgian nationality as against Spanish, Austrian, Dutch, or German oppressors. In place of these things, naturally expected after the book on Flanders had appeared, we have several chapters of legends. These are more or less interesting, though most of them are already well known. As regards the new version of the Antwerp legend, we feel as conservative towards the orthodox form as a nursery child who discerns a variation from the fairy tales as at first related. We confess to liking the old version of Brabo, the killer of the giant Antigonus, and the "hand werpen," or throwing, better than the less known one here reproduced, which, in spite of its alleged Flemish origin, has a very modern sound. The chapter on Politics and Plural Voting is very clear and very interesting, but from a somewhat closer acquaintance with the country and people, we think Mrs. Anderson underrates the power and influence of the Socialists. She ignores utterly the small numbers but potent influence of the Protestants, who from the heroic days of resistance to Spain have, despite clerical tyranny allied to state power, kept alive their organization. One-fifth of the book, comprising one long chapter entitled The Last Word, is taken up with first-hand narratives of the woes and desolation of the German invasion. With the author (p. 355) "we feel sure that the spell of its [Belgium's] enchantment will survive."

As regards holiday dress, indexing, copious illustration, and resplendence of outward appearance, the volume is worthy of a king's welcome.

SUB SPECIE WISCONSINÆ.

Regulation of Railroads and Public Utilities in Wisconsin. By Fred L. Holmes. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2 net.

The "Wisconsin Idea" has been much exploited both by observers and by those who have been responsible for its creation and application. It has been glorified by its friends. From its critics there has been raillery of a not altogether gentle kind over the self-adulation indulged in by the participants in this movement of moral "uplift." Yet if we study the results in detail with minds freed from all prejudice, the claims which Wisconsin sets up for primacy in the movement for popular government are not altogether without basis. Nor is it so difficult for us to appreciate how those who are in the thick of the fight should forget for the moment the extent to which Wisconsin owes impetus to movements that have gone before, and should overlook the fact that other commonwealths have similar problems which they are solving in their own way independent of Wisconsin's assistance.

The most recent product of the "Wisconsin Idea" is this study of the history and work of the present Railroad Commission, created in 1905. It is written by one who was a member of the Legislature at the time of its creation and Chairman of the Assembly Committee on Transportation, and who has kept closely in touch with its work ever since.

It is an extraordinary story and one of fascinating interest, admirably told. It reveals a ready response on the part of the State to the suggestions of the Commission for amendment and extension of its powers, and continuous State support born of confidence in the ability and integrity of the Commissioners. It would be impossible within the limits of a review merely to mention the various activities which make up the wide range of the Commission's service, let alone passing judgment upon them. Only the most important of these activities from the standpoint of general State regulation may be noted.

A distinctive feature of the Wisconsin law is that the Commission fixes absolute and not merely maximum rates, and no rate goes into effect without the approval of the Com-

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mission. To set aside the Commission's order requires that the railway or utility shall prove its unreasonableness, thus shifting the burden of proof to the corporation. If new evidence is presented before the court, the case is immediately sent back to the Commission for further hearing.

The Commission classifies the service of each utility, and makes a uniform rate for each class. It fixes standards of service, voltage of electricity, heating quality of gas, pressure of water on mains, facility with which telephone calls shall be answered, adequacy of equipment in street railway service, and its standards are enforced through constant inspection and supervision by the Commission's staff. It has devised elaborate systems of accounting for each of the utilities and has made definitive rulings covering the vexed problem of depreciation. No securities that run for more than a year can be issued without the Commission's approval.

The most distinctive features of Wisconsin's regulatory practice remain, however, to be noticed. The first is the cost basis of rate-making. In no other jurisdiction has the principle of basing rates on cost been carried so far or with such success. It has involved in Wisconsin physical valuation of railways and all other utilities and the elaboration of unit costs to a degree unknown elsewhere. The author's endorsement of this practice is emphatic and leads one to wonder whether the vigorous objections of railway and other utility accountants will eventually be overcome. It is not without significanee that B. H. Meyer, who is a graduate of this Wisconsin Commission, is responsible for introducing the first stages of cost accounting into the accounts of the Interstate Commerce Commission. A second distinctive feature of Wisconsin's practice is the indeterminate franchise now held by all public utilities. With the passage of the law, which made this innovation possible, the Commission took a definite stand in opposition to the creation of competitive utilities, with their duplication of facilities and consequent unnecessary burdens on the public. Instead it has created legally protected monopolies. It is of significance that municipally owned plants are under the same control as private, and that municipal accounting and management in general have improved greatly under the Commission's tutelage.

As already hinted, one feels inclined to criticise in some respects the attitude of mind of the author, while giving him full credit for an excellent statement of the facts. He fails, in the first place, to recognize the indebtedness of Wisconsin to movements in other States and on the part of the national Government, in which solutions for some of the same problems had been attempted prior to Wisconsin's entrance upon the scene. Note, for example, this statement (p. 317):

> The original Interstate Commerce law was greatly modified in intent, and many of its underlying principles either weakened or destroyed through decisions of the Federal courts. In Wisconsin there has been no judicial interpretation or construction of the provisions of the regulating act, which in any way had the effect of diminishing the primary purposes of the law. The difference in the spirit with which the State and Federal courts view economic conditions probably explains the divergent results. Gradually the Wisconsin Supreme Court has abandoned the customary practice of shackling twentieth-century progress with eighteenth-century ideals.

The true explanation is that the Interstate Commerce law, which was enacted nearly twenty years earlier, furnished the proving-ground for later statutes. As a matter of fact, we know that the Wisconsin law took advantage of the experience gained in the administration of the Interstate Commerce law and avoided many of its pitfalls.

Finally, one wishes, as one lays down the book, that one might feel as confident as does the author of the success of the Wisconsin method, not only from the standpoint of the State, but also from that of the corporations. But there is only a chance reference here and there to the views of a corporation manager, and one is left wholly in the dark as to what the corporations think of the Wisconsin Railroad Commission. They seem to have prospered, but whether in spite of the Commission or because of it we do not know. We are compelled to be satisfied with the oracular utterance of the State Supreme Court: "So far it has been found to accomplish the task with such distinguished completeness that the enactment stands as a most consummate effort of legislative wisdom and a model for similar efforts elsewhere."

"JOHN COMPANY."

The English Factories in India, 1651-1654: A Calendar of Documents in the India Office, Westminster. By William Foster. Oxford University Press.

The history of the "John Company," as the old East India corporation used to be called, has a perennial fascination for lovers of stern and dramatic adventure. Many volumes have been written tracing the evolution of the present Indian Empire from its somewhat sordid beginnings in the British factories and trading posts established three centuries ago on both sides of the Indian peninsula. The background of Mongol and Persian rivalry, the struggles between the Portuguese and the Dutch in the earlier years, and among the Dutch, French, and English later, the attempts of the Dutch to sweep British shipping from the Eastern seas, and of the French to drive British traders from the Mongol coast, together with the culminating events of the Seven Years' War and the Indian Mutiny, furnished all the ingredients of a rugged and picturesque narrative. From the Nawāb Mīr Jumla to Dupleix, Clive, Nicholson, and Lawrence the reader found plenty of purple patches, periods of individual prowess, that served to raise the story high above the mere chronicle of business routine.

But with the march of historical scholarship it was inevitable that the prosier but no less important parts of the subject should demand a hearing. Behind the individuals lay the company, and the prosperity of the company lay in the success of its business transactions. In the India Office at Westminster are thousands of documents, formerly used chiefly for the compiling of biographies, that contain the secret of the growth of British control in India. Years ago, William Noël Sainsbury, then of the State Paper Office, began to calendar these documents, as part of the "Calendar of State Papers, Colonial," and carried the entries of the Court Minutes as far as 1634. But the task was too great, the work was dropped, and Mr. Sainsbury confined himself to the American end of colonial history. A few years later, Henry Stevens, "of Vermont," the well-known antiquary and bookseller of London, attracted by certain items in Mr. Sainsbury's calendar, obtained permission to print the full minutes of the company to 1603, and his volume was issued by his son in 1886. In 1893, Quaritch, for reasons unknown, published a single volume containing in full the first letter-book, a manuscript long supposed to be lost but recently discovered. The importance of Quaritch's venture lay not so much in the publication itself as in the fact that the bookseller entrusted the choice of material and the task of editorship to two men whose names are intimately connected with the revived interest in the records of the company.

These men were Sir Charles Birdwood, eminent member of the India Office and writer on the art, symbolism, and industry of the East, and still living at the ripe age of eighty-three, and William Foster, of the same office and later superintendent of its records. Sir Charles had already prepared a report on the records, the third edition of which was printed in 1890, and he now made a determined effort to have the whole matter of publication placed on a permanent foundation. The effort was successful. A "List of General Records, 1599-1879" was issued in 1902; the patronage of the Secretary of State for India in Council was enlisted; and a publisher was found, first, the firm of Messrs. Sampson, Low, Marston & Co., and afterwards the Delegates of the Clarendon Press. In 1896 the first fruits appeared. Quaritch's work was continued in a volume of letters, under the direction of Frederick Danvers, at that time superintendent of records, and in the years to 1902 five more volumes were issued, with William Foster as the editor, covering the period to 1617. The continuation of Sainsbury's calendar was entrusted to his daughter, Miss Ethel Sainsbury, who by 1913 had edited four noteworthy volumes, carrying the subject to 1654. At the same time, Mr. Foster resumed the calendaring of the letters or original correspondence, under a new title, "The English Factories of India," and the seventh volume

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of that series, treating of the period 1651 to 1654, is now before us.

Thus the material for a definitive history of British control in India is gradually accumulating in printed form, and another demonstration is made, in striking contrast with the spirit prevailing in our own Government, of the interest taken by British officials in the publication of the documents in their custody. Of the character of the documents here printed we need say but little. Any analysis would involve a presentation of subjects that could not be briefly discussed. Altogether, the documents cover but half a century, and those of this volume but four years, and with two centuries more to run much time must elapse before the final record of the history of the company is available in print. Thus far the activities concern the management of the company at home and of the factories in India, the trading voyages to the East, and the interminable negotiations with the native princes in India, Persia, and China, in the effort, as yet often vain, to outwit the representatives of Portugal and Holland. Throughout all the negotiations there runs a vein of low business morality, and cheating the company seems to have been a favorite pursuit. So far as general history is concerned, the records are of great value for the light they throw on the commerce of the seventeenth century in the dyestuffs, cloths, spices, and gold of India.

Notes

The Century Company announces the forthcoming publication of "The Story of the Submarine," by Farnham Bishop, and "Master Skylark," a dramatization of John Bennett's novel of that name.

"The First Hundred Thousand," by Ian Hay, will be published next month by Houghton Mifflin Company.

In the swarm of books relating to the war it is refreshing to come upon a plain, simple narrative such as is the official Belgian report, "L'Action de l'Armée Belge" (Paris: Chapelot). Covering operations from July 31 to December 31, 1914, this short report is eloquent by its sobriety and self-restraint. It describes in sufficient detail the operations of the heroic Belgian troops from their first contact with the German invasion to the final junction with the Allied troops behind the line of the Yser. The ideas controlling these operations are clearly set forth: to hold as much of the national territory as possible, to establish lines of defence that would be useful should the Allies come up in time, and, nevertheless, to avoid exposing the army to certain destruction should they not come up. It is significant that, until Belgium realized that the Germans were about to violate her territory, she kept her small army (six divisions) stationed in strict accord with the conditions growing out of the treaty guaranteeing her neutrality. One division faced England, two France, one, and only one, Germany. The other two formed the garrisons of Brussels and of Antwerp, respectively. The publishers have mounted the maps of this report in a manner as commendable as it is novel, by causing them to fold in along the top of the usual blank page, instead of along the right edge. We earnestly hope that publishers of works containing maps will take note of this innovation, and imitate it wherever possible.

In "Some Aspects of the War" (T. Fisher Unwin) S. Pérez Triana gathers together some loosely connected thoughts and enunciates a number of tolerably obvious truths. The author, a citizen of the Republic of Colombia and a former member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, studied in his youth at the Universiy of Leipzig. The war has stirred within him a bitter reaction against all things Teutonic. German disregard of international law, German atrocities, German songs of conquest and of hate, German militarism, and German ambitions—all these he castigates in unrestrained rhetoric, supported by quotations ranging from the Old Testament to his own communications to the daily press.

Henry St. George Tucker has little difficulty in establishing the existence of some "Limitations on the Treaty-Making Power, Under the Constitution of the United States" (Little, Brown; $5 net). He cites numerous authorities for the proposition that this power is subject to the implied restriction that nothing can be done under it which changes the Constitution of the country or robs a department of the Government or of any of the States of their constitutional authority. Even those who argue for the supremacy of treaties over State laws admit that there are matters which are not proper subjects of international agreement, and which, if embodied in a treaty, "would be only a colorable, not a real, exercise of the treaty-making power." Limitations of this sort are inferable from the language of the Constitution. Treaties, in order to become the supreme law of the land, must be made "under the authority of the United States." It is not the whim or caprice of the President and a concurring two-thirds of the Senators present that determines whether a particular topic is the proper subject of treaty agreement, but our Federal Constitution and frame of government. A treaty which violates them is not made "under the authority of the United States." Secretary Bayard recognized this doctrine when he declined to enter into a treaty with Brazil establishing the principle of reciprocity in the administration of aliens' estates by consuls. He declared that "the Federal Government has no power to impose such regulations on the States" (5 Moore's Dig. of Int. Law, 120). It is true that other Secretaries of State have not agreed with Mr. Bayard as to this particular limitation on the treaty-making power. Mr. Blaine once referred to it as a controverted point (For. Rel. of U. S., 1890, p. 255). And here we come upon the real difficulty which besets Mr. Tucker. What are the limitations upon the treaty-making power of the President and Senate? He insists that they are very extensive, prohibiting not only changes in the Federal Constitution, and interference with the power of the House of Representatives, but prohibiting the abrogation of State laws governing the tenure and transmission of property, the settlement of decedents' estates, as well as those enacted in the exercise of the police power. He admits that the Supreme Court has not expressly formulated this doctrine, but, on the other hand, he asserts it has never committed itself to the opposite view. In several recent cases, that court has been careful not to render a decision on this subject, while so construing treaties as to avoid a conflict between them and State laws. State courts of last resort in California, Minnesota, and New York have taken a similar attitude. They decline to pass upon the question whether a Federal treaty can supersede State laws for the administration of decedents' estates, and content themselves with holding that the particular treaty before them was not intended to produce that result. No one can read these decisions and the diplomatic history of the treaties involved without the feeling of assurance that the President and Senate have never made a treaty which was intended to assert their unqualified supremacy over State Constitutions and laws.

Marcus Dimsdale's "History of Latin Literature" (Appleton; $2 net) cannot be ranked with such members of the Literatures of the World series as Dowden's volume on French Literature or that of Gilbert Murray on the Ancient Greek. There are parts of the book which are very satisfactory, but in too many places the author betrays a lack of vital personal interest, and is content to serve to the reader the *panem secundum* from the critical store of some one else, with no fresh sauce of his own mixing. The result of this process may not always be a loss, but Pichon's condemnation *en bloc* of the character drawing in the last six books of the Æneid, for instance, rests on no such solid ground as to justify its quotation and acceptance without question. The chapter on Horace is based on a deeper personal appreciation, and avoids some of the common pitfalls, such as interpreting certain borrowings from Lucilius in the Satires as confessions of personal immorality, linking a large share of the Odes up to the conspiracy of Muræna, or failing to recognize the sincerity and predominance of the moral and patriotic sentiment in Horace during the years of his maturity. The long chapter on Cicero is too long by at least the two pages in which a half-hearted attempt is made to defend his poetry. Tacitus put the final and inimitable word on that subject into the mouth of one of the speakers in the Dialogue Concerning the Orators, where we are told that Cæsar and Brutus wrote poems, "not better than Cicero, but with better luck, because fewer knew that they had done so." And when Mr. Dimsdale in all seriousness winds up his defence by citing the fragments of Cicero's poems which remain as proof that he "attained at least a respectable mediocrity," one imagines either that his sense of humor is lacking or that his edition of Horace lacks the famous passage,

> mediocribus esse poetis
> Non homines, non Di, non concessere columnæ.

Such merits of substance as the book possesses are rather seriously injured by lack of proper care in getting it through the press. There are many little defects and errors so obvious that one wonders why they were not removed by the publishers, whether detected by the author in the proof-sheets or not. Or has the day gone by when we may legitimately assume that a publishing house should be too jealous of its own reputation to let slipshod work issue from its presses? Responsibility for incorrect references to texts and authorities, which are frequent, must, of course, fall back upon the author. Some of these can be explained only on the theory that the

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author did not take the trouble to verify his references for himself when preparing his manuscript. On two successive pages about Terence we note one incorrect reference, two separate cases of confusion of characters, and two mangled quotations of the text, one of them very aptly followed by the words, "to translate would be absurd." Need it be argued that the cause of classical scholarship is not likely to be furthered by slovenliness in its literature?

Mrs. Charmian K. London tells from the woman's point of view, in "The Log of the Snark" (Macmillan; $2.50 net), the story of the interrupted round-the-world cruise which has already been described by her husband. She puts it into the form of a daily typewritten record of events and impressions, with thrills and headaches, sores, scares, and bruises, storm and calm, all in chronological order. Upon it all she endeavors to throw back the parting sunlight of "a sweet memory," with the possibility of doing it over again as "the one ultimate hope of earthly bliss," but her narrative is hardly likely to make "Snarking" among the South Sea Islands a popular pastime. It took some months of California climate and rest to work out of Jack London's system a half-dozen maladies which he had contracted during the voyage, and Mrs. London suffered from recurring attacks of fever for nearly a year. The risk to life and health involved in travelling with such limited facilities as those of the Snark is a high price to pay either for exceptional experience or for good "copy."

One thinks of the thoroughness of a von Hindenburg "drive" or enveloping movement as one follows the course of Clifton Johnson from the Pacific Coast over the Rocky Mountains, through the Mississippi valley, and along the Great Lakes, sees him throw out his right wing to sweep the South from Texas to the Carolinas, next to form an unbroken line from the St. Lawrence to Virginia, and now finally to lead his forces through the "Highways and Byways of New England," from the New York border to Maine. One can hardly say more of this new volume (Macmillan; $1.50 net) than that the author hunts out the typical and the picturesque along the country roads and picks up the "short and simple annals" of life on the farms and in the village hotels and groceries of New England, just as he has done for other regions in the half-dozen previous volumes of the series. The amount of genuine Yankee wit and humor which he has found shows that the foreign invasion of recent times has not altogether altered the New England type.

At the request of the Romance department of Smith College, M. Lucien Foulet—himself the author of an admirable treatise on the "Roman de Renard"—prepared recently a purchase-list of books and periodicals necessary for the constitution of a good Old French library. That list, edited by Professors Schinz and Underwood, is now published as "A Bibliography of Mediæval French Literature for College Libraries" (Yale University Press). It contains some two hundred entries, about half of which are starred as especially important. The current price of each work is indicated. The list includes complete sets of the general Romance periodicals, such as the *Romania* and the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*. Without these, the cost of the whole collection would be, roughly, a thousand dollars, or half that amount for the starred works only. The Bibliography is carefully prepared and excellently printed, and will prove convenient to students of Old French, acquisitive or inquisitive.

The editors recognize that "such a selection will differ according to the scholar." Due allowance made for individual likings, however, this particular selection must still meet with adverse criticism on the ground that it slights work done outside of France. The list is designed for American use, yet it disregards almost entirely the by no means negligible contributions of American scholars. Mott's "System of Courtly Love" and Miss Schoepperle's monograph on the Tristan legend, to mention but one familiar and one recent book, should certainly have been included. The names of Rajna and Restori do not appear. A regrettable prejudice against German work is manifest. Inferior French editions of "Aiol," "Gautier d'Arras," and the "Roland" are listed, but not the far better German editions by Foerster ("Aiol" and "Gautier d'Arras") and Müller. Other neglected German works of primary importance are Baist's "Perceval," Golther's "Tristan," Schultz's "Höfisches Leben," and Voretzsch's "Einführung in das Studium der altfranzösischen Literatur." Minor defects are few. The analysis of the Grundriss is careless in its omission of the section on Italian literature. Crestien is spelled with an *h* that is neither modern nor mediæval.

It is interesting to note that the first book to attempt a comprehensive summary of the activities and organization of "American Chambers of Commerce" is an essay by Kenneth Sturges, M.A., to whom has been awarded the David Ames Wells prize in the department of political science of Williams College, the competition being limited to senior undergraduates and graduates of not over three years' standing (Moffat, Yard; $2 net). Mr. Sturges graduated in 1911, and was winner of the competition open to the classes of 1911, 1912, 1913, and 1914. His book is a compilation of such facts as he found available, and refers to many sources of information from which the student can obtain further details. It covers the period from 1768 to 1915 in the United States. Early historical development and distribution, structural principles, training and work of the commercial secretary, activities in connection with city governmental reform, coöperation with municipal authorities, civic improvement, industrial progress, etc., are treated in separate chapters. A particular study of the Cleveland Chamber is included, inasmuch as "The secretaries of thirty prominent commercial organizations in the United States recently voted to place the Cleveland Chamber in the front rank as the body that in their opinion had done most to improve its city and stimulate civic loyalty on the part of the citizens." The book includes notes, appendices, index, and a bibliography. It will be found useful as a reference book by libraries, schools, and all directly concerned with the civic, economic, or commercial aspects of the subject.

We are inclined to think that Professor Cook's method in "A Literary Middle English Reader" (Ginn; $2) is a more satisfactory way of recommending our earlier literature to a wider audience than the method of more or less complete modernization, recently much resorted to. Middle English poetry has generally not quite enough structure to bear up well under the strain of translation. The genuine-flavor-of-both-verse-and-prose-easily evaporates in course of the change. The present plan provides a substantial and representative body of text, each selection preceded by a compact introduction, and all the words likely to impede the course of the least practiced reader glossed at the bottom of the page. Undoubtedly, Professor Cook has opened an inviting road for the searcher after literary values. The arrangement is roughly by types, under such rubrics as romances, tales, chronicles, lyrics, and plays. Juster impressions of the material might be more easily had if the arrangement within the type were more nearly chronological. "King Horn" would have made a better entrance to the field of romance than Malory's "Morte d'Arthur."

Few persons consider the extent to which belief in a not remote "second coming of Christ" now exists in the Christian world. Prof. Henry C. Sheldon's "Studies in Recent Adventism" (New York: The Abingdon Press; 50 cents) is a timely contribution to the understanding of this phenomenon. His statement of the recent literature of the subject is practically complete, and his refutation of Adventist arguments is decisive. The belief, considered merely as an opinion, might be passed over in silence; but its tendency to promote a false exegesis of the Bible and to lay stress on non-spiritual conceptions calls for the vigorous condemnation which is given in the present volume.

In "Is Death the End?" (Putnam; $1.50) John Haynes Holmes, minister of the Church of the Messiah, New York, offers considerations supporting the belief in immortality. Discarding arguments based on the alleged universality of the belief or on the experiences of the Society for Psychical Research, he relies on two generally acknowledged facts: First, the grand spiritual outfit of man, which seems to point to a destiny higher than that of this earth, and then, the principle of the persistence of force, which, he holds, secures the continuance of the great spiritual force that constitutes the soul. These considerations are put forcibly, but to some readers it will seem doubtful whether they demonstrate personal immortality. The Creator, it may be said, may choose to develop on earth a race of beings intellectually and morally highly endowed, but we do not know that He will choose to continue them in existence longer; and it does not follow that the persistence of force carries with it the continuance hereafter of any particular vehicle or instrument that the force may here use. The value of Mr. Holmes's attractively written book would be increased for many students by a more detailed consideration of the two difficulties just mentioned.

For the materials of a life of William Branch Giles, one of the most debated figures of his time, there have existed large stores of material. From his entrance into the House of Representatives in 1790, an obscure young Virginian from a rural district, to his retirement from the Senate in 1816, he never failed to take an active part in all matters coming before Congress. During Jefferson's Administration he was virtually party chief

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in legislative matters, while as a member of the Committee on Foreign Relations he paid unremitting attention to international affairs. It is the merit of Prof. D. R. Anderson's "William Branch Giles: A Study in the History of Virginia and the Nation from 1790 to 1830" (Banta Publishing Co.; $1.50), that it has gathered together all these materials in the Annals of Congress, the writings of Adams, Jefferson, and Monroe, and the newspapers of Washington and Virginia, as well as in Giles's private correspondence, and that the author has cast new light upon the doubtful points in the character of a peculiar man. The heavy volume is largely a rather dry statement of Giles's attitude and utterances upon such questions as the national bank, the tariff, the embargo, States' rights, and the national judiciary; but there runs through it the purpose of vindicating Giles from the disparaging estimates left of him by opponents like Adams and Gallatin. In carrying out this purpose, the author sometimes fails to condemn Giles where condemnation is due. Beyond any doubt he was a man of ability and intellect, and historians have been unjust in denying his competence to write such papers as his resolutions against Hamilton. Beyond doubt he was a leader of independence and integrity, and deserves credit for standing upon principle even in his insurgency against Madison. But his prejudices and narrownesses are not the more defensible for having been honest and ardent. His early opposition to the far-sighted plans of Hamilton was only that of his party. But he appears in a less amiable light in his unyielding stand by States' rights, extending to unreasonable jealousy of Federalist measures; in the bitterness which tinged his opposition to the Judiciary act of 1801, and in his refusal to countenance a change in the Constitution of Virginia in 1829-30. Few States have needed a new instrument more than did Virginia at that date. Yet Giles, rounding out his career by a three years' term as Governor, stood to the last against the inevitable tide of reform in the Convention. Professor Anderson might more clearly have indicated the deficiencies of a man who was so extraordinary a reactionary in a democratic period. But both in its central narrative and in *obiter dicta* the book contains much of value to the student of State or national history. A careful index makes this easily accessible.

Prof. Robert William Rogers's useful and carefully compiled History of Babylonia and Assyria has appeared in a revised and largely rewritten sixth edition (Abingdon Press, two volumes, $10). In the making of this revision the original two volumes of about 850 pages have been expanded to 1,150 pages. The most important part of the revision is naturally to be found in the earlier period of Babylonian history. All the substantial facts so far as ascertained for the period prior to the dynasty of Sargon I, with whom the Semitic settlers of the Euphrates valley came to the fore, have been embodied by the author, and a good many details have also been added for the period between the dynasty of Sargon and the fall of Larsa, about the year 2100 B. C. It is somewhat of a disappointment not to find more mention of dates for this early period, even though they would necessarily be merely approximate. Professor Rogers no doubt expects the reader to refer to the table inserted towards the close of the first volume, but it would have been convenient in connection with the early rulers to add the approximate date while presenting the narrative of the period. The author in this latest edition clings to his preference for higher figures than those usually accepted at present by most Assyriologists for Sargon and his predecessors, but even according to the author's calculation Sargon ought to be brought down about two centuries later than c. 3000 B. C., where Professor Rogers puts him. In general, however, it may be said that Professor Rogers is a safe guide to follow, and the two volumes bear testimony throughout of the conscientious manner with which he has followed, down to small details, the researches of Assyriologists in all parts of the world.

Another new feature in the present volumes is the addition of illustrations, of which there are a large number. While many of them naturally have frequently been reproduced, there are a number which are new, and at all events it is valuable to have thus put together a considerable amount of illustrative material for the general culture of Babylonia and Assyria, though only a few of the illustrations have any direct bearing on the history. In connection with the Prolegomena, covering in this edition the entire first volume of almost 550 pages, there are also included portraits of the chief explorers and decipherers. To many of Professor Rogers's readers it may seem that perhaps too much space has been given to the Prolegomena. In a history one hardly expects to have the story of the excavations and decipherment told in such detail as to cover almost 400 pages; nor to have a further chapter added on the script and a survey of the grammar of Sumerian and Akkadian. It might be better, in case of a further edition being called for, to publish this material as a separate book, and the space then gained could profitably be devoted to the introduction of more historical details, especially in the portion dealing with certain sections of Babylonian history and to a critical discussion of the data given in the inscriptions, which are almost entirely lacking.

The last four volumes of the Art and Craft of Letters series (Doran; 40 cents each) are, like the first, essays of a pleasantly and cleverly dilettante sort rather than solid pieces of exposition. The epigram replaces the fact; in place of consecutive thought we have "suggestiveness." Orlo Williams's little book on "The Essay" is typical in giving one-fourth of its space to an attempt at a definition, and finally arriving at the illuminating conclusion that "an essay is a typical composition by a typical essayist." Mr. Williams does, however, neatly characterize the standard essayists and provide a guide to the best things of George Street, G. K. Chesterton, Max Beerbohm, E. V. Lucas, Hilaire Belloc, and Vernon Lee. Frank Sidgwick's "The Ballad" contains, amid much ill-assorted matter, a readable account of the recent work of scholarship in that field. "Parody," by Christopher Stone, is a frankly entertaining tissue of quotations, and P. P. Howe's "Criticism" is a sketchy outline of the interpretation of literature down to our time, commendable in its warm appreciation of Johnson and Hazlitt.

A good book on military history for boys of high-school age is "The Book of the Thin Red Line," by Sir Henry Newbolt (Longmans; $1.50 net). The author has picked out six real heroes and pieced together, from their own words so far as possible, a graphic and interesting sketch of their military careers. They cover nearly all the great wars of the nineteenth century in which men of British blood were engaged. Four of the six are famous—John Colborne, Sir Harry Smith, James Outram, and Stonewall Jackson. Two of them were brothers—Robert and George Blakeney—who entered the service in their 'teens, and ended their careers without attaining high rank; but they kept good diaries, still in manuscript, from which the author draws picturesque anecdotes and details; and they show the spirit with which Englishmen waged war against Napoleon. The stirring episodes are such as to arouse patriotism and noble resolve in a boy, but their glamour does not altogether throw into obscurity the darker side of war. A number of illustrations and colored plates show some famous charges made by "the thin red line."

Science

Rules may be formulated, printed, and distributed, but unless they are understood and their purpose appreciated they remain so much paper and printer's ink. This apparently is the point of view of the committee responsible for a little volume entitled "Washington Health Rules," prepared and published by the Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, Washington, D. C. Twelve excellent rules embrace the topics of good air, pure water, safe milk and cream, sleep, personal cleanliness, food, breathing and exercise, care of the teeth, liquor and tobacco, colds, and sunshine. The rules, as presented in two pages, are so brief and terse as to be almost commands. The why and wherefore—which give force to the rule—are necessarily lacking in such brief statements. The individual for whom the rule is supposed to be of benefit is left to his own inclination—to obey the rule or otherwise as he sees fit. It occurred, apparently, to the active Association of the District of Columbia that as no one could be forced to obedience it was advisable to appeal to reason. The Association therefore selected a recognized authority to interpret each rule and to explain its importance. Thus we find the Surgeon-General of the United States Public Health Service discussing the rule concerning "pure water," the Health Officer of the District of Columbia the question of "food," and Dr. Harvey W. Wiley the rule concerning "liquor and tobacco." For example, Rule 1, on "Good Air," states baldly: "Avoid badly ventilated, badly lighted, dusty, dirty, overheated, crowded, or damp rooms." The interpreter of this rule tells in seven pages why fresh air is essential to life, what "air" is, how it becomes polluted or unwholesome, how polluted air affects the individual exposed to it, what means may be employed to keep the air in rooms fresh, and finally the curative effect of an abundance of fresh air in certain diseases is emphasized.

That this method of interpreting health rules is of great value and at the same time is greatly appreciated is shown by the fact that since 1911 the Association has distributed 34,000 copies in the public schools of Washington, while the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs has distributed 50,000 copies in Indian homes. The Association primarily

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intended its commentary for school teachers and normal-school pupils, but it is worthy of a much wider distribution, as is also this example worthy of emulation by any organization that formulates rules for the education of the general community.

A characteristic product of the French school of historical geography may be seen in a thesis of 372 pages on "La Géographie de Terre Neuve," by Robert Perret (Paris: Guilmoto). The author visited Newfoundland in the course of his study, but did not see a great part of the country; his thesis is largely a compilation of the work of others. It opens with a 30-page history of exploration; next come 40 pages on geology and physical geography, regarding which suffice it to say that the thesis-volume led to the degree of *Docteur ès Lettres,* not *ès Sciences;* then 30 more pages on the Grand Banks and the theories of their origin. The climate, the flora, and the fauna follow with 35, 22, and 38 pages respectively, but with a less intimate correlation with physical features than could be desired, perhaps because the physical features themselves are not well described; the exploitation of the land and of the sea have 24 and 44 pages; finally colonization is treated in 52 pages, and the relations of Newfoundland to the Great Powers in 30 pages. The historical element is strong throughout, even to the flavoring of the earlier scientific chapters with an extract of the progress of knowledge, instead of holding their content objectively to the present-day knowledge of the facts; while the last four chapters would fit about as well in an historical as in a geographical treatise. The book has thirty excellent photographic plates, and a bibliography of 423 titles; but the table of contents occupies only fifteen half-lines. There are no special page or paragraph headings, and no index.

Drama

"PETER PAN."

We write a word of welcome to Sir James Barrie's "Peter Pan," which has been revived for a short holiday season at the Empire Theatre. We had almost said Miss Maude Adams's "Peter Pan," so inseparably is the actress connected in this country with the part which, in an especial way, she has made her own, and in which she is seen, undoubtedly, to better advantage than in any other rôle that she has attempted. Miss Adams's Peter Pan remains the gracious, winning, insouciant performance it has always been: it has become so much of a tradition on the American stage that it is impossible now to think of a day when Miss Adams may be too old to play the part. At any rate, judging from this year's performance, that day is still very far distant. Other rôles are, on the whole, adequately played, and the production is generaly satisfactory, although we have seen considerably more beautiful stage productions and certainly more sympathetic Wendys. We cannot close a brief notice without recording an illuminating flash of criticism that came from an infant of five who happened to occupy the next seat to the writer. "Why," he queried plaintively, after Miss Adams's appeal to the audience to perjure itself on the question of fairies had met with the usual response, "Why do we have to clap? Why don't the boys [Peter's companions] clap?" The infantile critic rightly resented the tearing away of that invisible barrier between actors and audience on the erection of which illusion depends. Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings Sir James Barrie is convicted of a bit of meretricious theatricality.

S. W.

"THE WEAVERS."

The performance of "The Weavers" at the Garden Theatre, by Emanuel Reicher's company, does full justice to a play in which a community is protagonist, and no two or three characters stand forth with the others grouped around them in subsidiary rôles. The five-act panorama of suffering and revolt requires a cast numerous and balanced, in which each shall fit with natural individuality into his place and yet coöperate with the others in achieving a striking general effect. There was not a single actor who was incompetent, and the majority gave notably able interpretations of their parts, while the whole performance had a crushing unity of emotional weight. The manufacturer, Dreissiger, as he appeared in the first act, overseeing two insolent officers as they doled out a pitiful tale of groschen to the underfed workers, was impersonated by Mortimer Martini in an excellent picture of greed, hypocrisy, and bullying cowardice. Of these two officers, the manager, Pfeifer, was as vividly heartless and sneaking.

From the first scenes the intelligent staging of the play held the audience closely: the stage pictures had spirit and color, the characters of the background moved with animation and reality, and where, as in the mob gatherings and at the tavern, the whole cast had to speak and act at once, the scenes had a remarkable genuineness. The settings had been worked out with a nice eye to detail and to coöperative values. Even the half-starved children took their places as by instinct. The play proceeded with cumulative power, but there was a constant occurrence of little vignettes of extraordinary pathos and completeness. One was furnished by Herr Reicher himself, as Old Ansorge in tears at the memory of his father's death; another by the scene in the eating-room of the tavern, in which the travelling salesman made love to the innkeeper's daughter; a third by the shallow pastor lecturing his frocked assistant in Dreissiger's drawing-room upon the youthful folly of his sympathy for the weavers. The finest bit of acting was that of Adolph Link, a man of some European reputation, who impersonated the simple, confused old Baumert, gentle at heart, yet half-maddened by his sense of injustice. Mention should also be made of Rupert Harvey as the returned soldier, whose bearing and brandy puts heart into the rebellious weavers, and who is their active ringleader; and of Augustus Duncan as Old Hilse, whose loyalty to peace and order is not to be shaken, and who is shot as he stands in trembling dignity at his loom. The almost incredible injustices pictured by the play appear credible and real, mainly by virtue of the fact that against the ghastliest of the backgrounds the characters stand forth as simple and natural peasant souls; even the scene in the poverty-stricken cabin, where supper is preparing in the shape of a roasted dog, does not appear overstrained. Opinions may differ as to the permanent value of such a play as "The Weavers"; there is no doubt as to the strength of this first American performance in English.

A. N.

"KATINKA."

Mr. Arthur Hammerstein's holiday offering to the theatre-going public is not without distinct merits so far as the music goes, but the book is trivial and the singing mediocre. The production is, however, pleasingly staged, and the audience which attended the Forty-fourth Street Theatre on Christmas eve expressed cordial approval of the piece. There is no need here to outline the story, which is inconsequential. To Miss May Naudain is assigned the title part, and she is heard to the best advantage in "Rackety Coo." A more happy selection is Edith Rowland, who scores heavily in "I Want to Marry a Male Quartette" and "I Can Tell by the Way You Dance, Dear." Others in the cast are Franklyn Ardell, who provides most of the comedy; Samuel Ash, Count Grimaldi, and Daniel Baker. Rudolf Friml wrote the music, while the book and lyrics are the work of Otto Hauerback. The creditable staging is by Frank Smithson.

H. L.

"RUGGLES OF RED GAP."

Harry Leon Wilson's story of this name is not a work of genius; it is a good, workmanlike specimen of the popular and quite obvious humor of the day which one associates particularly with the widely circulated magazine which introduced Mr. Wilson's story to the public. Compared, however, with the play which Harrison Rhodes has laboriously patched together from Mr. Wilson's chapters, the story is, from beginning to end, a piece of rollicking mirth. In justice to the original author it must be said that there was enough material in his story to make a slight but sufficiently amusing farce. Ruggles, an impeccable English valet, is turned over, in consideration of a gambling debt incurred by his master, the Honourable George Vane-Baseingwell, to the service of a crude Western American family hailing from the town of Red Gap. "Cousin Egbert," at the instance of the masterful Mrs. Floud, is to be the particular object of Ruggles's solicitous care; but "Cousin Egbert" is one who "can be pushed just so fur and no further," and, arrived in Red Gap, he takes the wind out of Mrs. Floud's sails by introducing the valet to the élite of the town as "Colonel Ruggles, of London, England." The mischief is irreparable, and to save the family from ridicule, Ruggles must continue to support his spurious honors. In the end, the English valet, who proves himself to be very much of a man, becoming appreciative of the advantages of American democracy, starts a restaurant and settles down as one of Red Gap's leading citizens.

In the original tale there is a good deal of mild humor and some effective satire on the snobbery of small Western towns. The play has been extracted piecemeal from the book; the humor is almost entirely of that side-splitting variety which consists of the American characters guffawing at certain unfamiliar expressions used by the English characters, and vice versa; the satire has become ponderous. With judicious pruning and rewriting, the play might even now amount to something, if the principal character were well played. Ralph Herz is the star (we gather of some magnitude from the fact that

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his name in the programme is printed in capital letters) and plays Ruggles. So long as he is the deferential valet pure and simple, he is competent. So soon as he ceases to be subservient, he loses all conception of the part, becomes characterless and futile, and fails completely to give any impression of the gradual evolution of the English valet into the American citizen—which is the only motive that gives unity to the play. The rest of the cast—if we except the impossible Earl of Brinstead—does well with none too promising material. In particular we may mention the Mrs. Floud of Louise Closser Hale, whose intermittent appearances on the stage are always welcome, and the Honourable George of George Hassell, who succeeds in playing a typical stage Englishman without beclouding the character by exaggeration. S. W.

A half-season of the Neighborhood Playhouse's activity has been ended with the presentation of Nutta Syrett's "The Gift of the Fairies," a play for very young children, by performers of tender age specially trained. The previous offering was a pantomime by the name of "Thanksgiving Festival," with dancing and singing that required the services of fifty persons. The Playhouse has also seen the presentation of Violet Tearn's "Wild Birds," a comedy of the Devonshire moors originally given in England by the Bristol Repertory Theatre; and it has been thrown open to performances of the operetta "Adelaide," by David Bispham, and of Sudermann's "Johannisfeuer" in Yiddish, by the Free Yiddish Folks' Theatre. The Playhouse, under the competent direction of Miss Agnes Morgan and others, offers dramatic training to a large number of young people of this section of the lower East Side, recruited principally from the clubs of the Neighborhood Settlement. Among the performances planned for the near future is one of Browning's, "A Blot in the 'Scutcheon."

Music

RUSSIAN MUSIC TO THE FORE.

The Russian composers who have come into prominence since the days of Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky have been remarkably lucky. A timber merchant of great wealth named Mitrophane Petrovich Balaiev made up his mind to become their Mæcenas. In 1885 he founded a publishing house in Leipzig and began to spend vast sums in printing and distributing the works of the younger composers of his country. He also encouraged orchestras with his financial aid to play these compositions; and in 1889 he financed the concerts of Russian music given in Paris during the Exposition. Half a dozen years ago the missionary work was resumed by Serge Diaghileff, who took to the principal capitals of Europe the Ballet Russe as well as two operas of which the Russians are particularly proud: Moussorgky's "Boris Godounoff" and Borodin's "Prince Igor." The first of these operas was also produced two seasons ago at the Metropolitan Opera House, where it has since held its own, while "Prince Igor" is to have its first American performance there this evening. On January 17 the Diaghileff Ballet Russe, now en route, will be heard at the Century Theatre in New York, and later at the Metropolitan Opera House, which has shortened its season to make room for the Russians, who will produce twenty or more spectacular and pantomimic ballets, for most of which Tchaikovsky, Borodin, Balakireff, Rimsky-Korsakoff, and Stravinsky, all of them Muscovites, wrote the music.

Nothing could be more timely, under these circumstances, than the publication of a book on Russian music. When it bears the name of Arthur Pougin, as does the "Short History of Russian Music" just issued in a good translation of Lawrence Howard by Brentano's, it is doubly welcome. M. Pougin is a scholarly critic (he wrote the Supplement to the monumental "Biographie universelle des Musiciens" of Fétis), and he has plenty of the Gallic sense of humor and sarcasm which are necessary for treating the most important phase of Russian musical history—the great war between the cosmopolitan musical geniuses, Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky in one camp, and the formerly so-called "Young Russian School" in the other—a school of which the leaders were Balakireff, César Cui, Moussorgsky, Borodin, and Rimsky-Korsakoff. These men looked upon themselves (at least some of them did) as the "Big Five." With touching modesty they called themselves Mogouchaya Koushka, "The Powerful Group." They formed a mutual admiration society and looked with contempt on the works of those not included in their circle.

Their chief spokesman was the least talented (musically) of the five: César Cui, who, in an historic sketch, and in many contributions to periodicals, sought to prove that Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky were not real Russian composers. Their chief sin, it appears, was that they invented and used melodies of their own instead of using Russian folk tunes as bricks in building up their compositions. M. Pougin does not fail to bring out the humor of this situation, as well as that of the attitude of this coterie towards Wagner, whose principles they borrowed while crying loudly that they were utterly different and abhorred him. César Cui found "a complete absence of music" in "Die Walküre," while "Tristan" gave him the same impression as "a door grating on its hinges for three and a half hours." He lived to see at least two of his partners desert him and his principles; and these two were by far the most gifted of the five—Rimsky-Korsakoff and Borodin.

Stravinsky and the other men of the youngest iconoclastic group of Russians are only briefly referred to in Pougin's book, which does not pretend to be a complete history, but only, as its French title indicates, an "Essai Historique sur la Musique en Russie." His chapters on Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky are remarkably judicial. It is in these two men and in Rimsky-Korsakoff that the chief glory of Russian music lies. Pougin realizes this fact, as does Rosa Newmarch in her admirable "History of Russian Opera," whereas Montagu-Nathan spoiled his otherwise meritorious "History of Russian Music" by almost outdoing Cui in abuse of the two men of genius and in flattery of the mediocrities. It should be stated that, while M. Pougin makes mincemeat of Cui and his childish pretensions, he does not undervalue the products of the "Big Five," or the other Russians, beginning with Glinka, who, as the founder of Russian opera, based, partly, on folk song, gets the usual amount of attention, though his famous opera, "A Life for the Czar," "is not perhaps an actual masterpiece."

Of special interest are the opening chapters of this history, in which the author dwells in considerable detail on the roots of Russian music in folk song and the church. He refers to the Ukraine, a province famous for its beautiful voices, and to the amazing singers who double the ordinary basses at the interval of an octave below them. He cites two eminent French composers as to the effect the choir of the Imperial Chapel had on them. Adam wrote: "From the very first bars of the piece I began to shed tears; then, when the music quickened up, and the thundering voices launched the whole artillery of their lungs, I found myself trembling and covered with a cold sweat. The most tremendous orchestra in the world could never give rise to this curious sensation, which was entirely different from any that I had supposed it possible for music to convey." "Sighs and murmurs such as one sometimes hears in dreams" were suggested to Berlioz when he heard this Russian choir. "From time to time came sounds so intense that they resembled human cries which tortured the mind with the weight of sudden oppression and almost made the heart stop beating. Then the whole thing quieted down, diminishing by divinely slow gradations to a mere breath, as though a choir of angels were leaving the earth and gradually losing itself in the uppermost heights of heaven."

Two volumes, entitled "Modern Russian Piano Music," from the Oliver Ditson press, appear just in time to emphasize the fact that Russian music is not all operatic and terpsichorean. The editor of these volumes is Constantin von Sternberg, a Russian by birth and formerly a concert pianist of distinction. His first volume includes pieces by Arensky, Balakireff, Cui, Glazounoff, Glinka, and sixteen less-known composers; while the second has pieces by sixteen more writers, of whom the most famous are Liadoff, Moussorgsky, Rachmaninoff, Scriabine, and Tchaikovsky. Together these three dozen and one composers make a good showing for their country. Some of the pieces selected by Mr. Sternberg are difficult, but most of them come within the compass of amateurs. In an introductory essay he discusses the qualities which have "given to Russian music the strength to make its way from its far northern home through the whole civilized world."

HENRY T. FINCK.

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Art

WITHIN THE ENCLOSURE AT POMPEII —SOME RECENT EXCAVATIONS.

By JOHN A. HUYBERS.

NAPLES, December 6.

With the permission of Prof. Victor Spinazzola, the director of the National Museum of Naples, and director of the excavations at Pompeii for the last five years, I have visited the enclosure at Pompeii, closed to the public. Under the direction of Professor Spinazzola, who proceeds carefully from layer to layer, every object found being restored to its original place, remarkable results have been achieved. In the last four years no less than 300 metres of ancient streets have been laid bare. With such care have the excavations been carried out that they have assumed an importance superior to any previously made. As the official publication of the recent excavations has not yet appeared, I was not permitted to make notes or drawings of any kind. What follows, therefore, is no more than a series of impressions, memorized in the course of a brief visit.

On entering by the small door—which the guardian locks behind us—in the high fence separating that part of the Strada dell' Abbondanza, now in process of excavation, and rigorously closed to the public, an astonishing difference is at once noticed between that Pompeii familiar to visitors and what is now before the eyes. On this side of the partition only humanity is lacking to give to the scene the activity and vitality of daily life. Within the enclosure of the new excavations is a continuation of the Strada dell' Abbondanza which we have just left outside; to the left is a private house, with what might be, but for the color, the original door—it is a cement model of the carbonized door that was standing there, and the real bolts and locks are in their proper places. On the stucco walls outside are the bright red letters of the notices of candidates for municipal employment. Another door shows the raised large panels, about three feet square, the intervening space between the panels studded with the heads of great round copper nails like large green toadstools seen from above. Nails, bars, locks are all in their original places.

The next house is that of a shoe- or rather sandal-maker; on the wall or wide pilaster separating it from the adjoining house are two frescoes in excellent condition—the precaution has been taken to place a glass case over each fresco, with a canvas curtain, only withdrawn for the privileged visitor; for after their long inurement the frescoes would fade rapidly in the sun's rays. The superior panel shows Mercury leaving a temple, carrying in his left hand the caduces, in his right a purse. In order that the figure may not be too small, the head of Mercury almost reaches the top of the temple. The fresco beneath shows the sandal-maker's shop. He is standing behind the counter; to the left a case with shelves showing various patterns. A customer in blue mantle is sitting on a bench to the right, waiting to be served. The next house is a dyer's, with two well-preserved frescoes on the outer wall. The upper panel shows Venus in blue drapery in a chariot to which are harnessed four elephants advancing towards the spectator. Beneath are figures dyeing cloth. To the right a figure in pink mantle holds up, and is almost concealed by, a large yellow cloth with two pink stripes that he is exhibiting as a sample of the work of the establishment. Within may be seen the dyeing vats.

A few doors beyond is a trattoria. Here all is complete—the copper utensils for heating and cooking, the various vessels for kitchen use, the wine jars of different sizes.

In many places the upper stories of the dwellings are still standing; balconies overlook the street; porticos are roofed with great, broad tiles, the bright-red Latin letters showing out on the stucco walls. In the kitchen of the wine-shop the water in the closed copper heater remained as in the day the city was overwhelmed. On the wall outside in bright colors is a Priapus, with inordinate phallus—the old sign of abundance, as on Egyptian monuments. On the pavement we trip over a metal conduit that has escaped destruction, and the metal pipe still issues from the rudely carved head in low relief of the public fountain. The latrina, with passage for running water, shows the same arrangement as that adopted in the steerage quarters of Italian steamships to-day. The natural attitude is preserved, and no better method could be found.

There is, in particular, one remarkable house that seems to be awaiting its usual occupants, to break the silence of 2,000 years. The entrance, the portico, the tessellated pavement of the passage rising gently to the higher elevation of the atrium, are uninjured. From the atrium in the chamber to the left, we can see the fresco covering the main part of the wall facing us. It measures, I should judge, eighteen feet in length and twelve feet in height. Too recently discovered to be as yet protected by a glass case, the fresco in the freshness of its coloring might have been painted six months ago. A lion is pursuing a bull in the foreground, and in the upper part of the picture are hunting dogs worrying a boar. In the upper story is the roof garden, with the triclinium and table in the middle still standing.

In another house, in the bedroom, the white ivory feet of the bed remain almost unimpaired, and above is the impression of the bolster and the mattress. In a hallway the decorated white tiles, in heavy relief and of various design, have not dropped from their places. In another room the frieze of white figures in relief on a blue ground remains intact.

In the basement of a three-story house are the moulds of five recently discovered human beings, placed on temporary wooden tables. The first is in peaceful attitude, lying on the side, with hands placed under the head. Next is a group of two, evidently husband and wife. They lie on their sides facing each other. The skull of the woman is intact. The attitude is that of a frightened child pressing its head against its mother's breast. The next figure is lying on its back, with the legs drawn up, the uneasy attitude of the whole body and the position of the arms suggesting a death by suffocation. The fifth figure, like the first, is in a peaceful attitude, as though death came quietly in sleep.

The men who work in the enclosure are necessarily picked men, integrity and honesty being essentials in the work to be done. I carried away with me the impression of a partly excavated house. At my feet on the mosaic pavement the light pumice cinders roll from the higher elevation, on which stalwart young workmen are removing the débris in baskets, bronze in complexion, vigorous in form, with kindly curious eyes—"vi ridon prima gli occhi, che la bocca"—on the stranger who has interrupted them in their work.

Mr. Ralph Adams Cram, in his "Heart of Europe" (Scribner; $2.50), finds abundant opportunity for his warm and sometimes fervid style, and in the main makes good use of the opportunity. The barbarism of the horrible war that has devastated the whole region lying between the Rhine and the Seine for a hundred miles back from the Channel; the desolation of fair cities and busy lands, and the wreckage of priceless monuments of art tempt to strong language, which Dr. Cram knows how to use, and uses effectively and often eloquently. The book aims to sketch in broad outlines the aspect and history of north-eastern France and of Belgium, with special reference to the art of the cities of that afflicted region, and with a not unnatural emphasis on the architecture. Dr. Cram is a competent critic, and his descriptions are as far as possible from the guidebook type; they are broad characterizations, with little technical detail. The Glory of a Great Art, The Burghers and Their Buildings, A Tale of Three Cities, The Fifteenth Century Painters, Gothic Sculpture, The Allied Arts—these titles of a few of the sixteen chapters indicate the method and spirit of his treatment, which is rather that of detached essays covering often the same field from different points of view than of a systematic treatise. They are all very readable, excellent in literary form, often suggestive and illuminating. Dr. Cram has strong prejudices, which give color to his style even when they vitiate the soundness of his judgment; he has two especial antipathies, the Renaissance and the Reformation, and he looks askance at republican institutions, and utterly abhors modern industrialism. To his view, the world was much better off in the 500 years before 1500 than it has been in the 400 years since. If the present state of the heart of Europe is, after all, the true measure of the progress of the last four centuries, one may easily incline to his view; but the Teutonic *Kultur* has not yet overspread the world. Apart from the occasionally violent expressions of these prejudices, the historical sketches are handled in an entertaining and informing way. Thirty-three full-page illustrations add to the interest of the book.

"Lantern Making," as imparted by H. A. Rankin (Dutton; $1 net), is the art of fashioning paper lanterns of various geometrical shapes. The book consists of working patterns with accompanying descriptions. The exercises have obvious educational value in their wide range of geometrical practice and theory, manipulative cutting and folding, and the requirement of careful gluing or gumming. The lanterns are quite suitable to make at home, since the materials are cheap and common. Nothing prevents rendering them well enough to serve a decorative purpose.

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A. J. Anderson's "The Romance of Leonardo da Vinci" (Brentano's; $3.75 net) is a most exasperating sort of nondescript, as readers of the author's similar works on Fra Filippo Lippi and Botticelli will hardly need to be told. Half a controversial treatise, half a bad historical novel, with the strangest mixture of occasional shrewd sense and more common preposterous fancy, in a crude and inelegant diction—the only word that will express the composite must be sought in Germany. It is *Unding*.

"Great Schools of Painting, a First Book of European Art," by Winifred Turner (Lippincott; $1.50), is as sensible a little book as we have seen. It treats the schools of Italy, Flanders, Germany, and Spain. The method is simple: A little general history, a little artist biography, comment on a few typical paintings. There are thirty-two well-chosen plates. It is just the thing for grammar-school or for home reading for children in their 'teens. A few errors in matters of fact and attribution are venial blemishes. The slurring and inadequate treatment of Titian, Rubens, and the more drastic *genre* painters of the North is a more serious drawback. Offsetting this is the real skill with which the *materialia* of legend and symbolism are taught without too much breaking the continuity of the chapters.

Another compilation for middle-class collectors appears in "Antique Furniture," by Fred W. Burgess (Putnam; $2). This is not a very important work, despite its aim to be "an exhaustive book of reference about the furniture of all ages and of all peoples." Its range indeed, is wide, but the author lacks insight and ability to distinguish essential from non-essential. An American reader, to test the validity of Mr. Burgess's claim for his book, might naturally turn to the chapter on American furniture. This is found to be neither "exhaustive" nor perspicacious, though it contains fifteen pages of closely packed and rather scrappy information. From this treatment, certainly, no English reader would form a correct idea of the dignity of American colonial cabinet-making, especially fine during the Chippendale period, 1770 to 1775, when, as Mr. Luke Vincent Lockwood has written, "furniture was made in the colonies which for workmanship compared favorably with any made in England." The overseas reader will be apprised quite fully of the national habit of religiously preserving the chairs in which our notables have sat. So unique a development, however, as that of the Rhode Island block fronts is not mentioned. The American empire style is not referred to. The writer has drawn nothing from our great museum collections, such as the Bolles furniture at the Metropolitan Museum of Art and the Pendleton collection at the Rhode Island School of Design. The high lights, in brief, of American furniture have not been brought out as one might expect in a compilation of this pretension. Similar superficiality may be charged against other chapters. A characteristically inaccurate sentence is this: "Although not introduced into this country [England] until 1595 mahogany soon became the favorite wood of the cabinet-maker." "Soon," means, of course, in about a century! Positive statements about purely hypothetical matters occur, as when the author, citing no authority, attributes the improvement of European arts and crafts to "the better knowledge of human form possessed by Grecian artists, who added to Chinese art by more realistic and less conventional ornamentation." One does not recall that even the imaginative Professor Fenollosa asserted of the pre-Chow Chinese so widespread influence as this. The book for all these defects is fairly readable, and much of its information has been taken from sources which in the original are too costly for the average person to own.

Finance

NEW PHASES OF AN "INTERNATIONAL TRADE BALANCE."

The advance last week in exchange on London, to $4.73¼ in the pound sterling, fixed the highest rate since the middle of last August. It compared with $4.71⅞ a week before and with $4.50 on September 1, the low level of the period of war. Even when sterling rates rose violently at the end of last September, on the announcement of the $500,000,000 Anglo-French loan, the highest figure touched on the recovery was $4.73. That this movement of exchange in favor of London was chiefly a result of the special credit lately arranged by London bankers in New York, for the special purpose of regulating the sterling market, was plain enough. Probably, too, the continuing resale to us of American securities by English holders, and the prospect of a continued movement of the sort under the auspices of the British Exchequer, had considerable influence.

But the rise in sterling exchange also directed attention to two highly interesting financial statements, made public this past week. The first, which bore familiar testimony to one side of the situation, was the foreign trade report for November, showing the surplus of merchandise exports over imports for that month to have been $166,800,000, as against a previous high November record of $125,100,000, and the excess for the eleven completed months of 1915 to have been $1,583,000,000, as against a previous maximum for those months of $642,000,000.

Here was a "merchandise balance" nearly a thousand million dollars greater than the largest ever witnessed in the past, and much the greater part of the difference was for account of England and France. There have been three main offsets to the necessary influence of this abnormal merchandise movement on the market for international exchange—the gold sent to us by Europe, the loans made by us to Europe, and the American securities sold by Europe on our markets.

Of gold, our $387,000,000 excess of imports for the eleven past months was nearly $200,000,000 greater than any similar excess in a quarter of a century. Of loans to Europe, the $500,000,000 Anglo-French operation diverts that much from the burden of remittance through the sterling market, whereby rates of exchange would naturally be forced down. There remain the resales of our own securities.

The latest of the careful estimates by President Loree, of the Delaware & Hudson, given out last week and based on the official registry of ownership in the books of the companies, indicates that $480,892,000 of American railways' stocks and bonds were returned from abroad in the six months between February 1 and July 31. If the monthly average of resales thus indicated has been maintained since that date (and the strong probability is that it has been), and if allowance is made for the sales made before Mr. Loree's six-months' period, then it would seem that the total of such return of American securities, since the New York Stock Exchange reopened in December, has been not far from $1,000,000,000; with such addition as the resale of our industrial stocks and bonds would necessitate.

As a mathematical question, these three offsetting items of securities resold, of loans to Europe, and of gold imported, would appear more than to meet the increase in the surplus of our exports of merchandise over other years of active foreign trade. But the problem cannot be safely worked out without looking further. How much is to be allowed for the total loss of the "tourist expenditures," against which our market used to remit from $150,000,000 upward, offsetting that much of merchandise export trade? How much for the great decrease in our annual "coupon remittances" to Europe, now that Europe's holdings of our securities are so enormously reduced? How much for the withdrawal of outside capital from London and its remittance to New York, since New York became for the time the central market?

The problem is one always surrounded with complications and obscurities; it is a mathematical equation which never works out surely. The very uncertainty of it lends interest to Mr. Loree's estimate of American railway securities still held abroad at the end of last July. The estimate makes them $2,223,500,000 par value, with a market value of $1,751,400,000. At the monthly rate of resale indicated in the estimate, market value of what remains abroad to-day would be $1,431,000,000. It is this remainder which the British Exchequer is endeavoring to "mobilize" in the Government's hands, for return in due course to the American market.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

MISCELLANEOUS.

Loeb Classical Library: Pliny's Letters. 2 vols. Apuleius the Golden Ass. Lucian. The Odes of Pindar. Macmillan. $1.50 net each.

Parsons, E. C. Social Freedom. Putnam. $1 net.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Cuthbert, Father. The Romanticism of St. Francis. Longmans, Green. $2 net.

Eckman, G. P. The Literary Primacy of the Bible. Methodist Book Concern. $1 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Street, J. The Most Interesting American. Century. 50 cents net.

Theodore Roosevelt. An Autobiography. Macmillan.

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POETRY.

American Garland. Being a Collection of Ballads Relating to America. Edited by C. H. Firth. Longmans, Green. $1 net.
Beresford, R. and J. Poems by Two Brothers. London: MacDonald.
Bourinot, A. S. Laurentian Lyrics and Other Poems. Toronto, Canada: The Copp, Clark Co.
Oxford Poetry. 1915. London: Blackwell.
Sandford, E. T. Brookdown and Other Poems. London: MacDonald.
Spencer, C. Poems. Boston: Badger. $1.50 net.
T., J. Recreations. Boston: Badger. $1.50 net.

SCIENCE.

Seal, B. The Positive Sciences of the Ancient Hindus. Longmans, Green. $4 net.

DRAMA AND MUSIC.

Kraemer, O. J., and Humphreys, L. W. Dollars and Sense. Boston: Badger. $1 net.

ART.

Foster, A. Making Curtains and Hangings. McBride. 50 cents.

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Olcott, F. J., and Pendleton, A. The Jolly Book for Boys and Girls. Houghton Mifflin. $2 net.

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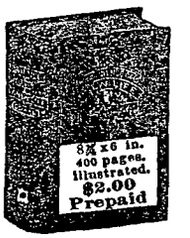

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